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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLI, NUMBER 2

FEBRUARY, 1950

The Power to Tax As the Power to Create

HAROLD H. PUNKE

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Americans have heard a great deal about the power to tax as the "power to destroy," and little about the power to tax as the "power to create." One reason for emphasis on taxation as a possible avenue to economic destruction is probably historic in origin—arising when a small group of autocratic tyrants lived in royal extravagance which was provided through heavy taxes on people with little wealth or income. This situation was often aggravated by primitive systems of public administration that allowed tax collectors to retain much of the money which they extorted as taxes. The parts of the Western World which have become fairly literate and somewhat democratic have scrutinized to some extent the expenditures which ruling groups make of public funds, and in these areas extortionate taxes on the masses for maintaining a few in comparative luxury or idleness have become less common. Nevertheless historical accounts remind each generation that the taxing power of government can greatly affect the economic status of particular individuals as well as the economic structure of an entire nation.

Coupled with historic accounts of tax burdens is a general dislike to pay taxes. In a complex economy of agriculture, industry, trade, and professional service, money is the usual medium by which people secure desired goods and services. The individual experiences an immediate personal satisfaction if he can use his money to secure the specific goods and services which he wants. The use made of money which one pays as taxes has this personal-experience satisfaction removed. The community, by vote on such

issues as public education, police and fire protection, or street and highway paving, determines how the funds will be used. The satisfaction that one gets out of public improvements resulting from taxes which he pays may thus be remote both as to the time when he experiences the satisfaction and the extent to which he personally possesses or directly uses the goods or services provided.

The psychological resistance to giving up primary control of what one has considered his own, as in paying taxes, may have resulted in exaggeration of reports concerning the extortionate nature of some historic taxing practices. In any case, however, this psychological factor has two important implications concerning taxation in an industrial democracy. In such a democracy in which large amounts of wealth or income are concentrated in the hands of a few people, more tax revenue per capita is collected from such people than from the population in general. Nevertheless the power through publicity, or other avenues of social influence which often accompanies the personal control of wealth, may be used in an effort to reduce the taxes paid by persons in the economic groups concerned. The effort may be directed toward reducing all public expenditures and hence the tax levy on recipients of large incomes along with others, or it may be directed toward shifting taxes from wealthy persons to others without any change in the total levy. A shift from a graduated personal income tax to a general sales tax is one method by which the latter is accomplished.

A second implication of psychological resistance to paying taxes concerns popular education regarding the functions of government and the nature of large-scale economic enterprises. Earlier reference was made to the direct and immediate character of satisfaction resulting from the possession and use of an item which one secures through spending his own money. No intervening chain of relationships needs to be understood in such cases. However in regard to benefits secured through a community enterprise, more information and abstract thinking are involved. For example, one must understand community organization and the nature of government as an expression of the will of a majority in the community. One must also understand that government has no existence apart from the individual citizens of the community, and that its power comes from willingness of members of the community to work together. The individual must see that by pooling his efforts with the efforts of others it is possible for all of them as a group to achieve a great deal which they could not achieve by working individually. The significant idea has been expressed in such statements as: "In unity there is strength," or "United we stand, divided we fall." The principle applies to the United States in contrast with separate and individual states or to the United Nations in contrast with separate and individualistic nations. In addition, more time is usually required for a community to become convinced of the desirability of a particular type of group action, and to set the necessary machinery in motion, than to get personal action by an individual on a matter that directly affects him alone. Hence social action is likely to be slower than individual action.

The main thought at this point is that the goals and methods of community action are usually more comprehensive and more remote from the individual than actions which appear to affect him only. Therefore more information and more capacity for abstraction and evaluation are needed for group action than for individual action. One might accordingly expect it to be difficult for many persons to understand how a certain amount of money paid to the community as taxes could benefit members of the community more than the same amount spent by these members individually. The im-

portance of popular education for effective group action in this connection seems apparent.

When the general framework of government in the United States was established, governments were thought of largely in terms of the tyrannies which were then prominent in Western Europe. Three major ways in which the governments concerned touched the lives of average persons were through tax levies, demands for personal service, and restrictions on personal liberty. In view of this background one can understand why some early Americans placed great emphasis on individual liberty and maintained that the "less government the better"—for the citizen. Certainly if a government is mostly tyranny and taxes, the less there is of it the better for those who suffer and pay.

Since that early period in our history, however, the conception of government in the democratic world has changed materially. In democratic societies government is now thought of largely as a helper and protector of the common man, rather than as an exploiter and obstacle to his welfare. A democratic society uses government to achieve ends which are for the welfare of average persons but which such persons could not achieve alone or in small transient groups. Illustrations of this are the maintenance of a comprehensive system of public education, the establishment of paved highway systems, research in food production and other aspects of agriculture carried on at experiment stations, flood control and river valley development, maintenance of parks and playgrounds, housing the population of the nation, or providing for the full employment of the skills and other productive capacities of the people. The average member of a community benefits from group action in fields such as those indicated, although as an individual working alone he might be able to do little if anything to help himself—within the existing pattern of natural forces or economic organization. Developments such as those mentioned are indeed creative so far as the welfare and standard of living of the common man in a democratic society are concerned. For a unit of government to undertake such developments, however, it must levy taxes. It is in this sense that the power to tax is the power to create.

As the economic structure of the world makes vocational groups and nations increasingly

interdependent, many of the developments which affect individuals become increasingly comprehensive in scope. Thus the extent of America's participation in international trade is more important for the agriculture and industry of this country now than it was a century ago. What is done about reciprocal trade agreements among nations affects the welfare of farmers and factory workers in the United States. The same is true regarding the standard of living in economically backward areas, and the sharing of technology in an effort to raise that standard and to enable people in these areas to participate in international trade. The preceding paragraph referred to growing economic interdependence within the nation. In an interdependent society large undertakings are required to protect the individual economically and socially, and large undertakings require agencies which can command extensive economic support and which can exercise widespread direction and control. A governmental unit which can levy taxes over a wide area, and which can act directly in the public interest in supervising projects on which the funds are used, is probably in a better position to undertake comprehensive projects than any other agency. If so, the power to tax may constitute a creative power of far-reaching implications.

In an anxious world which has suffered inflation, depression, and war under a *laissez-faire* economy, it is understandable that people with small fortunes might hesitate to lend their money for private ventures. Many persons who have bought stock in private corporations or have lent money to them have lost most of their fortunes during a depression. However within recent generations citizens of the United States have experienced no similar loss of funds which they have loaned to the federal government. Hence it is not surprising that for many Americans of small means the government of the United States is the only agency that seems big enough and secure enough to inspire confidence and to induce them to put their small individual holdings to work. In this setting, too, the power of the federal government to tax and to inspire confidence in economic security carries with it the power to create—to create a place for investing small private fortunes, and thereby to draw out or create a substantial

fund which can be invested for the general good of the country.

The fact that in recent decades governments in democratic countries, particularly the United States, have increasingly used the power to tax as a power to create, does not mean that taxing power in a democratic society cannot be abused or become exploitive. Popular scrutiny of tax levies and the use made of revenues is essential. Popular education concerning the economic and social structure of a community or nation is necessary if this scrutiny is to be intelligent and in the public interest. In a society that allows a fairly wide scope of freedom for individuals to express themselves or to organize into small groups, there will always be lobbies and pressure groups. Such groups will struggle to use government power to help achieve their own ends and to prevent its use in achieving ends which they oppose. Here as elsewhere in a democratic society it is essential for the individual to know where his interests lie and how to act with others in fostering those interests.

From the standpoint of the welfare of the general run of the people, the fundamental issue concerns the ways in which the economic resources and income of the nation are used—rather than whether the use for particular purposes is directed primarily by private or by public agencies. The amount that is achieved in terms of the cost in social effort is important as well as the direction of the achievement. In any society which allows both public and private direction and control, there will be arguments concerning the percentage of the total that should be controlled by agencies of each type and concerning the control of specific types of projects—i.e., power production, rents and housing, land usage and preservation, medical care. Under these conditions it may be that the average citizen will increasingly consider his interests to be best served when he has an education which enables him to understand social and economic relationships and exercises his right to vote in helping to determine the ways in which tax and other resources will be used.

Foregoing paragraphs note three major reasons why the power to tax, in a society such as the United States, may be important as a power to create. (1) The taxing power

provides an avenue through which scattered funds can be pooled for use on projects that benefit members of the community individually, but which are too large for individuals to undertake. (2) Large-scale domestic and international undertakings which necessitate pooled resources, and which greatly affect individuals throughout this and other nations, are of increasing importance in our economy. (3) Many people are coming to regard the United States

government as the only agency in this country that can guarantee security for small investors during boom-and-bust cycles in our economy. Creative potential in each of the three respects is based on the power to tax. However, with the growing power which government in America is exercising through taxation, the individual citizen should be increasingly analytical of the use made of tax funds to insure that the use is creative rather than destructive.

America and Her Slogans

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America loves slogans. From the earliest days of its government and before, the nation has rallied around choice slogans as flies swarm over a bit of sugar. Advertisers have recognized this proneness of Americans to catch-phrases and today the makers of everything endeavor to catch the public's ear and reach its purse through clever phrase-making. Probably the growing importance of slogans in the United States is due in part to the increasing hustle of the lives of its individuals, for Americans today almost literally fulfill Rudolph Friml's caustic comment that they "go to bed at break of day and get up at dawn." They want something "snappy"—hence the slogan. In the maze of shibboleths that greet one on every hand, only the cleverest slogans or sayings survive, and therefore slogan-making has become almost a science.

Not only the hurry of Americans makes them appreciate the slogan. Their national pride, enthusiasm, and imagination apart from business lends import to catch phrases. Slogans compress much in little space; they are often picturesque; everyone understands them and takes pride in doing so; the appeal is democratic; and in a nation of millions of people, the only way to reach the masses seems to be through the slogan. Americans follow slogan-makers much as the children followed the Pied Piper—enthusiastically and without heeding the warnings of reason.

People other than historians study slogans. English departments in our schools point out

that slogans are usually figures of speech and therefore good because they convey a lengthy thought in a few words and thus hold the listener's attention. Business advertisers make exact studies of how slogans (alliteration, antithesis, metonymy, metaphor are their favorites) sell specific articles to specific classes of people.

Let us review our history to see how politicians and statesmen have caught the voters' attention and sold them specific ideas. Additional old ones will occur to the reader, while for the most part current ones are omitted because only time can give them value. Historical slogans can be considered under these headings: (1) Sobriquets, (2) Campaign Slogans, (3) Watchwords of Internal Politics, (4) War Slogans, (5) Watchwords of Diplomacy, (6) Slogans of the People. Like all classifications, however, these overlap.

SOBRIQUETS

It is a feature of America's democracy that her political leaders have been freely nicknamed, both out of affection and in scorn. The habit is unique; modern European history shows no parallel. Although Napoleon was the "little corporal," no one loved Bismarck the more for being the "Iron Chancellor." Europe as a rule does not headline her statemen after the fashion of the United States. Nicknaming is a brother-in-the-flesh process, possible only in a democracy. Americans have renamed their leaders from the time of the "Father of His

Country," and politicians have in turn courted catch-phrases as vote getters. Nor is this latter policy without excuse. With millions of voters representing all shades of mentality and political sagacity, with the frequency of elections which allows but small accomplishment during terms to merit re-elections, and with the keen competition of office seekers and the merciless searchlight of publicity growing stronger every year, the would-be statesman must of necessity seek some rallying center of wide appeal and he often finds it in the nickname and the slogan.

Even Washington, not escaping the bitterness of his enemies, was sometimes called the "Step-Father of His Country." His more pleasant sobriquet is of course the "First in . . ." Martin Van Buren for his political adroitness was known as "The Little Magician." Jackson was variously called "Hero of New Orleans, and "Old Hickory" by his friends, and "King Andrew" by those who resented his arbitrary actions. Thomas Benton received the name "Old Bullion" for his effort to assist Jackson in placing the currency on a metallic basis. General Scott bore an interesting nickname given him by a woman, "Old Fuss and Feathers." Zachary Taylor was "Old Rough and Ready." "The Little Giant" is, of course, Douglas. In the campaign of 1860, "Honest Old Abe, the Rail Splitter" was an appeal to the working class, an appeal that was apparently not unfruitful. The name Thomas J. Jackson, is known to very few, but this individual has great fame as "Stonewall" Jackson, a title given him on the spur of the moment by General Bee. President Hayes was called "Old Eight to Seven."

During Grant's second term there arose to fame (or notoriety) W. D. Kelley of Pennsylvania, better known as "Pig Iron" Kelley. He earned this title by his unceasing subservience to the iron interests of that state. We all know Blaine as the "Plumed Knight," but let us not forget "Me too Platt," the satellite of Roscoe Conkling. During the Populist agitation, B. R. Tillman of South Carolina acquired the name of "Pitchfork Ben," because of the violent nature of his speeches.

Jerry Simpson of Kansas became "Sockless Jerry," not because he went without that part of his clothing but because, in comparison to

his opponent who wore silk socks, Jerry was so democratic that he might be termed "Sockless." "Czar Reed," otherwise Thomas B. Reed, gained his title as Speaker of the House. Theodore Roosevelt, who more than anything else, yearned for popular approval, received this approbation in the name of "Teddy." Only in a democracy could an imperious man such as he be called "Teddy." It severely strains the imagination to think of his contemporary, Kaiser Wilhelm, being acclaimed "Billy." In more recent times, we find "Fighting Bob" LaFollette and "Silent Cal" Coolidge.

There are also general names, those given to entire groups. In this field there are the "War Hawks," applied to the men who were responsible for the War of 1812. A historian of the last generation in acknowledgment of their political youth called them the "Flapper Statesmen." The "Barn Burners" were Van Buren's followers in 1848; the "Hunkers" were the Administration Democrats at that time. "The Half Breeds" (Hayes and his reformers) and the "Stalwarts" or anti-administration men were the political class names of the 1870's. The boomers of Grant for a third term in the 1880 convention at Chicago were called "The Old Guard." Possibly this was an allusion to Napoleon's favorite regiment of the same name. The popular indignation about 1900 against extreme reformers brought forth the word "muckraker," designated first by Theodore Roosevelt. Finally, the party sobriquets for many years have been "Tammany Hall" and "Grand Old Party."

CAMPAIGN SLOGANS

The campaign of 1840 is generally accepted as the beginning of modern ones with their slogans, songs, mass meetings, processions, and other paraphernalia of democracy. The mighty struggle of the Whigs against the Jackson machine had a popular appeal. Seizing upon a sneering remark of their opponents, the Whigs impressed upon the minds of the voters the simple tastes of their candidate, and the campaign of 1840 is still known as the "Log Cabin and Hard Cider" campaign. The Whigs furthermore capitalized on their candidate's reputation as an Indian fighter. "Tippecanoe and Tyler Too" was inscribed on banners and plac-

ards; lusty voices cried it out loudly at torch light parades; men rose to their feet at mass meetings and shouted it; and the Whigs rode to victory on the crest of "Tippecanoe and Tyler too." Historians have conceded that the slogan (and the hard cider) won the election. Thereafter, both parties were of necessity compelled to make popular appeals to the country, and campaign slogans became a part of the nation's vocabulary.

By 1844, Texas was ready for annexation to the Union, but the growing spirit of sectionalism rendered the North unwilling to admit it. Fortunately, the expansion itch reached to far-away Oregon; and, combining the demands for both lands, the Democrats coined the slogan: "The Reannexation of Texas and the Reoccupation of Oregon." This slogan was exceedingly clever in that it appealed to the demands of both sections and to the national pride in the "re" insinuating that both territories had once been ours.

A more jingoistic phrase of this same campaign was "Fifty-Four Forty or Fight." Its alliterative appeal aroused the nation and made the slogan live in history as a witness to the effectiveness of *bon mots*. The fact that we tamely settled for the 49th parallel does not alter the psychological truth that the election was to great extent won on this watchword.

The campaign of 1848 created four *bon mots* of varying merit. The Administration Democrats were the "Hunkers"; Van Buren's henchmen were the "Barn Burners." Van Buren was further opposed by a phrase which confronted him on every hand: "Van, Van is a Used Up Man." The "Used-Up" part of this cry was effective with those voters to whom the intricacies of the battle between the "In's" and the "Out's" were incomprehensible.

During the Mexican War was born a catch phrase that was destined to become the creed of the nation, especially the Democrats, down to the Civil War: "Manifest Destiny." In an attempt to justify the Mexican War and subsequent annexations, appeal was made to what was evidently the manifest destiny of the young republic; the absorption of much of the continent. The phrase kindled the imagination of a people, but gradually dropped from the nation's vocabulary after the Civil War.

The year 1856 saw the entrance into the national political arena of a young and, then, idealistic party, the Republican party. It embodied its demands in the ponderous cry: "Free Soil, Free Speech, Free Men—and Frémont." To the present generation used to clever slogans, this first campaign call of the Republicans falls flat. It is too long, the pun on the name Frémont is dull and the alliteration is not "catchy."

The "Know-Nothing" (American) party of the same time grew out of a secret order. When its members were questioned about the organization the reply was: "I know nothing." This constant answer, although not actually a slogan, served to advertise the party effectively.

"Bleeding Kansas" was a most picturesque watchword. The exceedingly bitter struggle of sectionalism, the illegal actions in the territory, and the actual bloodshed were all summed up in "Bleeding Kansas." The terseness and the personification of this cry had such wide appeal that in alarm for their continuity in power the Democrats hushed the groans by righting the illegal actions and thereby staunching the wounds of poor Kansas. The memories of these two words lingered in the minds of Kansas, however, and served for a generation to keep the state in the Republican fold.

By 1860, the Republican espousal of a *limited* area for slavery had become so confused in the minds of southerners with the cause of immediate abolition that the words "Black Republicans" were sufficient to cause threats of secession if Lincoln were elected in 1860. The spectre of massacre if the blacks were set free so terrified many southern whites that the words "Black Republican" ostracized anyone who tried to reason with the panicky southern voters.

During the troubled days of 1864, Lincoln appealed to the country for re-election and propounded the homely proverb now universally known, "Don't swap horses while crossing the stream." Probably, however, this wisdom was not so effective in 1864 as it has since been recognized to be. "Copperheads," on the other hand, was a very effective epithet. The record is not clear as to the first application of this word to those who wished to give up the military struggle, but as the autumn of 1864 wore on and news of Northern victories poured in, to be

called a Copperhead was the depth of ignominy. The word was soon indiscriminately applied to all northern Democrats and for several years afterward they were so called by dyed-in-the-wool Republicans. This metaphorical phrase was significant in meaning. It was indicative not only of the intensity of American partisan feeling, but was also a tribute to American imagination.

"To eat crow" was a phrase instituted in the campaign of 1872. It has since been incorporated into popular speech without regard to politics.

A phrase covering the campaign methods of the Republicans from Reconstruction to about 1884 was "Waving the Bloody Shirt." By hailing itself as the savior of the Union and fanning the hatred for the South, the Republicans "Waved the Bloody Shirt." These words appeared in Republican campaign songs. James G. Blaine is credited with having originated a phrase with similar meaning: "The Men Who Saved the Union Should Rule It." That so many Americans were blinded by these slogans shows a political emotion that is brutal and selfish, but perhaps not entirely unnatural to those who lived through the grim reality of the Civil War.

The spirit of political reform was rising in both parties by 1884 and found expression in slogans of that year. In the convention which nominated Cleveland, General Bragg, who made the nominating speech, said this of the candidate: "We Love Him for the Enemies He Has Made." This sentence has since been applied to almost every reformer or crank who deviates from the norm of orthodoxy.

"Mugwump" is a curious word applied in contempt to the reformers among Republicans who deserted to Cleveland in 1884. It is an example of the wide range of American usage in political vocabulary and conveyed a slur on the "high-brow" or "superiority complex" of would-be reformers.

The most important slogan in 1884 from the standpoint of votes was the alliterative "Rum, Romanism and Rebellion." Spoken a few days before the election by the Rev. S. D. Burchard in introducing Blaine to a political assembly, it spread like wildfire throughout Catholic New York state and the implied association with

drunkenness and rebellion deeply offended the Irish vote. As a direct result of this unfortunate utterance, Blaine lost the state and consequently the presidency upon which he had set his heart. This phrase and its unhappy results for Blaine is an example of "God Deliver Me from My Friends; I Can Take Care of My Enemies Myself."

Bryan's "Cross of Gold" speech made him nationally famous in 1896, and the phrase, "Cross of Gold," became the rallying center for the advocates of the free coinage of silver. As a metaphor it is perfect, and the Biblical allusion made its appeal widespread to that generation. The Republicans endeavored to center attention on the tariff rather than on silver and coined two slogans for its candidate: "Bill McKinley and the McKinley Bill" and "The Advance Agent of Prosperity." The Republicans won, but in this case not because they had clever slogans.

The Republicans in 1900 invented a slogan of wide appeal, the "Full Dinner Pail." The meaning was obvious; the class to which it appealed was large and was inclined to accept it, since the promises had evidently been fulfilled from 1897 to 1900. The Republicans won. It is not implied, however, that the phrase deserves entire credit for the victory; undoubtedly the successfully concluded Spanish-American War played a part in the victory. The shibboleth, though, was clever and deserved the plaudits of Republicans.

Some inspired Democrat, sensing the popular fear of war, in 1916, invented the slogan, "He Kept Us Out of War," and this phrase was assiduously cultivated wherever the voters were at all pacifically inclined. That the country entered the war soon after inauguration does not change the fact that the slogan was greatly instrumental in re-electing Woodrow Wilson.

In 1924, the Republicans tried to win votes with "Keep Cool with Coolidge" and undoubtedly the slogan appealed to many conservatives, but, in general, the phrase was used derisively by the opposition.

"I Do Not Choose to Run in 1928," though not a campaign slogan, had such tremendous publicity as a pre-convention statement that it cannot be ignored here. It is an excellent example of what newspapers can do in the line

of publicity. Without doubt, such a commonplace utterance would have been accepted in 1828 without much comment. In 1928, however, the syndicate system gave it such publicity that countless teen age owners of battered Model T Fords painted on their cars these words: "I Do Not Choose to Run in 1928."

"Prosperity Is Just Around the Corner" was bitterly effective in defeating Hoover in 1932. It became the butt of radio and cartoon humor, as everyone over 35 years of age can recall.

WATCHWORDS OF INTERNAL POLITICS

This classification is not necessarily connected with election campaigns. I have tried to consider these shibboleths chronologically, but the history of some of them is so shrouded that difficulties arise.

Immediately preceding the adoption of the Constitution an attempt was made to popularize the word "Federal." "Federal" mixture was sold for pipes; "Federal" punch was drunk at taverns; and "Federal" hats were advertised in the shops. It was the idea of the advocates of the Constitution to so popularize the word "Federal" that people would lose all fear of a federal system of government.

"Midnight Judges" was the epithet applied by the indignant Democrats to the federal judges appointed by John Adams during his last days as President. "Midnight Judges" became one of the early watchwords of the opposition party.

"Gerrymander" was the name given to political chicanery in dividing a state into districts in order to favor one party. It takes its name from Eldbridge Gerry, governor of Massachusetts.

"The Era of Good Feeling" was used to characterize James Monroe's presidential term. The words are still used to denote lack of strife even in social groups.

Andrew Jackson's unofficial advisors were dubbed the "Kitchen Cabinet." This corruption of the decorous word "Cabinet" is an example of American practicality in slogan-making. Any other President might have suffered by the ridiculous words.

Henry Clay was crafty enough to apply the motto the "American System" to his pet schemes, including high tariffs, free western

lands and national aid for state internal improvements. Although the system was not developed, the name was politically clever. "I Would Rather Be Right Than President," originally uttered by Clay, is still quoted by those to whom the grapes are sour. "Money Monster" was the appellation applied by the plain people to the Bank of the United States, which Jackson overthrew. The name is interesting because of its highly imaginative qualities as well as political acumen.

"Squatter Sovereignty" was originated by Lewis Cass in 1848, but was popularized by Douglas in connection with the Kansas-Nebraska Territories. "Freeport Heresy" was on every tongue for months and spelled the death of Douglas' chance for the presidency. Religious heterodoxy had been no more fatal two centuries previous than was the Freeport Heresy in 1858. "Underground Railroad" was a picturesque and metaphorical rallying cry in the runaway slave trade, and was one of the most expressive phrases in American politics.

"Carpet-bag Government" is very well known; "Seward's Ice Box" was short-lived, but derisive enough while in use. "The Crime of '73" and "Sixteen to One" were shibboleths in the free silver agitation beginning in the late 1870's. "A public office is a public trust," attributed to Cleveland, while not poetical, was terse and true enough to outlast its author. A famous quotation from Cleveland's message of 1887 is "It is a condition that confronts us, not a theory." This also has lived and still grows in popularity.

"Government by Injunction" and "Judicial Tyranny" were the chief phrases coined by the rising labor organizations at the end of the nineteenth century. The feeling against the courts was very bitter, but unfortunately the unions failed to advance their cause by a slogan of wide appeal.

Popular sentiment against the growing trusts during the 1880's and 1890's coined the alliterative "Big Business." It was intended to denote some sinister influence in politics and still retains this connotation. "Soulless Corporation," invented by Henry Demarest Lloyd, is a highly imaginative bit of personification. That most practical of politicians, Mark Hanna, transferred to the American political vocabulary the word "standpatters." He applied it to

the conservatives during the era of agitation for social legislation, beginning in 1900. Borrowed from the "National Game," the idea of "stand-patters" fills a want in the American Language.

One of T. R. Roosevelt's many pet phrases was "the Ananias Club," membership in which he conferred on all his personal enemies. The Biblical allusion popularized it, and the idea of a "club" gave it a humorous twist. Another term that is now established in our political vocabulary is "Steam Roller." It was first used in 1908 by Oswald F. Schnette of the *Chicago Inter Ocean*, in protesting against the methods used by the Taft-Roosevelt majority in overriding the protests against seating Taft delegates from Alabama and Arkansas.

One of the unfortunate phrases of that polished idealist, President Wilson, was "Too Proud to Fight." An excellent motto from Wilson's meaning of it, the nation seized upon the motto as the confession of a coward. "One Hundred Per Cent Americanism" was originally invented in opposition to the League of Nations, but it has since been used by fourth rate politicians to lend an atmosphere of patriotism to any empty mouthing.

Finally, in this classification, no one can deny that the words "Fireside Chat" were a sedative to the frenzied during the long depression of the 1930's. Cleverly, they sound so cozy!

Some phrases in modern use but of indeterminate origin are: "Pork Barrel," referring to the farm custom of preserving pork in a barrel; "Dark Horse," which alludes to a notorious practice on the race tracks; "Log Rolling," a relic from the days of lumberjacks; and "Filibustering," which refers to the pirates of old.

WAR SLOGANS

The war periods in American history have provided many slogans that have lived through generations. It is the pressure of feeling behind war hysteria that gives slogans longevity. To read them over is to lose oneself in the emotions of the years they typify.

One of the rallying calls of the ten years preceding the American Revolution was "The Immemorial Rights of Englishmen." Every economic and political desire of the colonists they bound up in this phrase, quite unheeding of the fact that native sons of England were

not the possessors of all these privileges. "No taxation without representation" has gone ringing down the corridors of history. That the wrong implied was not the cause of the war makes no difference; to the vast majority of citizens, the catchy slogan has perverted the fact of history. "Give Me Liberty, or Give Me Death" is dear to the heart of every school child, and its progenitor was one Patrick Henry.

That crafty diplomat, Benjamin Franklin, gave utterance to a bit of wisdom still accepted today: "We Must All Hang Together or Assuredly We Shall All Hang Separately." Aside from the truth contained, probably the pun has popularized this sentence. Tom Paine wrote the still-used words: "These Are the Times that Try Men's Souls." "Don't Fire Till You See the Whites of their Eyes" made Colonel Warren and the Battle of Bunker Hill famous. It is the epitome of a nation's daring, and its sad lack of ammunition.

The Civil War gave three slogans that have lived. "On to Richmond" was the cry of the newspapers which in their love for action, pushed the phrase till the public took it up and seriously embarrassed the government in its plans. The persistence of Grant is illustrated in his words at Vicksburg: "I Intend to Fight It Out Along this Line if It Takes All Summer." A metaphorical statement of General Sherman, terse to the point of modernity, was his famous "War Is Hell."

The Spanish-American War was unimportant in length, but the pre-war excitement was great enough to carry on a war of much longer duration. "Remember the Maine" was the chief slogan of the days of 1898. Its brevity betrays its newspaper origin; and indeed the day had arrived when brevity had become one of the chief requisites of slogans. A slogan no longer dares to be lengthy if its creator desires any publicity at all. The growth of yellow journalism has been dependent upon the sensational, and startling brevity is the kernel of sensationalism.

The carefully prepared propaganda of World War I gave rise to dozens of slogans. Some will undoubtedly linger in popular memory. When coal was so scarce as to be worth a premium, not only were unessential industries closed for a time but householders were ex-

horted to "Save a shovelful of coal a Day"—they did. Gasoline and food were conserved through "Gasless Sundays" and "Wheatless" and "Meatless" days. "War Gardens" was another phrase on every tongue. "Food Will Win the War—Don't Waste It" was startlingly effective. "To Hooverize" became a popular infinitive. "Daylight Saving" was adopted during this war and has of course continued. The laborers of the shipyards enthusiastically adopted the cry: "Three Ships a Week or Bust." They didn't bust! Red, white and blue posters alliteratively solicited "Liberty Loans" everywhere so effectively that scarcely a man, woman or child but contributed a "Silver Bullet" to the cause. "Lafayette, We Are Here!" was deeper than a mere "tear-jerker."

World War II and its slogans are still fresh in everyone's mind. Which shall endure to the next generation's textbooks is not certain; but it is a safe wager that "Sighted Sub; Sank Same" will rank close to Perry's "Don't Give Up the Ship!"

WATCHWORDS OF DIPLOMACY

Many of the justly famous slogans of America have come from the sphere of diplomacy. America's relations with other nations have been boiled down into many watchwords.

The earliest of this type of slogan arose from the notorious XYZ affair. In response to Tallyrand's demand for a bribe, the American delegate said, "No. No, No, Not a Sixpence." The newspapers turned this phrase into the neat epigram: "Millions for Defense, But Not One Cent for Tribute."

A rallying cry that has become so deeply embedded in the American mind that even Woodrow Wilson could not draw it out is "No Entangling Alliances," a part of Jefferson's first inaugural address.

The "Open Door" policy is a picturesque wording of America's policy in Asia. T. R. Roosevelt's creed was to "Speak Softly and Carry a Big Stick." William J. Bryan, Secretary of State, was the negotiator of "Cooling Off Treaties."

Woodrow Wilson contributed more slogans to American diplomacy than any other public man. His clear mind and his talents as a writer permitted him to coin watchwords that were on everyone's tongue. Where another would

have written paragraphs explaining the policy toward Mexico, Wilson boiled it down to "Watchful Waiting." During the negotiations with Germany preceding American entrance into World War I, Wilson held it his right to "Reserve Judgment" and warned Germany that she would be held to "Strict Accountability" for every American life destroyed by submarines. He foresaw that a completely crushed enemy would augur ill for future peace and insisted that the peace should be a "Peace Without Victory." It was Wilson who gave the world its goal in the war: "The World Must Be Made Safe for Democracy." During the peace negotiations, it was he who insisted upon the "Self-Determination of Nations," a "Peace of Justice," and "Open Covenants Openly Arrived At."

Two generalizations upon the character of our international relations are, "Shirt Sleeve Diplomacy" and "Dollar Diplomacy." The first is a reference to the ceremonial-lacking diplomacy instituted by Jefferson; the second is a cynical allusion to the influence of Big Business upon the foreign attitude of our government in the twentieth century.

Let us conclude with a watchword of more pleasant connotation: "Good Neighbor" policy. This slogan of F. D. Roosevelt bids fair to endure in history; may it endure in actuality!

SLOGANS OF THE PEOPLE

Some of the best known slogans of America have come from the masses and not from professional politicians. When professionals did originate them, they were the type of leaders close to the people in spirit. These phrases belong to the social history of the nation, and only incidentally to political history.

Jefferson, who probably did more than any other man to settle America into the path of democracy, coined one of our earliest social slogans: "All Men Are Created Equal." During such popular revolts as those which caused the formation of the Republican party and gave rise to the Populist movement, this slogan was freely quoted, and today the words are known to every child in the land. As a corollary is another Jeffersonian phrase: all men are entitled to "Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness."

Out of the economic chaos that resulted from the American Revolution, there came into ex-

istence the well-known statement, "Not Worth a Continental."

The hundreds of evening camp fires which dotted the prairies in 1849 lit up hope for large migrations of people whose name, "Forty Niners," still denotes earnest seekers on many frontiers.

The pride of the ante-bellum South was her cotton crop. Around it centered the hope for good harvests; on it rested the economic and political well-being of the people; and on it were based the hopes of the Confederacy. No wonder it was called "King Cotton." It was the South in two words.

"Pike's Peak or Bust" was the motto of many during 1858. The widely quoted "Government of the People, etc." was spoken by that humble son of democracy, Abraham Lincoln. A slogan once much more quoted than now was Sherman's: "The Only Good Indian Is a Dead Indian." "The Long Drive" came into current use immediately after the Civil War when thousands of cattle were driven north from Texas. Greeley's "Go West, Young Man" is still quoted today, if only in jest. Doing a "Land Office" business is only now disappearing from the nation's vocabulary. For nearly a century it meant to be frantically busy and successful in any given undertaking. Today, one betrays his age by using it.

During their period of self-advertising, Kansans admonished one another to "Stand Up for Kansas" and that became the slogan of the boom in the 1880's. After the crash, many of the pioneers turned their faces eastward and sardonically acknowledged defeat by painting on their wagons, "In God We Trusted; In Kansas We Busted." During the Populist movement, Mrs. Mary E. Lease strongly advised the Kansas farmers to "Raise Less Corn and More Hell." That gave the papers a field day!

T. R. Roosevelt contributed four watchwords to the popular vocabulary: "Square Deal," "Trust-Busting," to throw one's "Hat in the Ring," and "Lunatic Fringe." Vice-President Thomas Marshall coined a happy phrase for parody makers when he said: "What America Needs Is a Good Five Cent Cigar."

The "New Freedom" was loved by many, and any one who has ever engaged in a game of cards must concede the practical, everyday,

and therefore far-reaching, appeal of the words "New Deal." Also of psychological value seem to be "Social Security" and "Cradle to the Grave," slogans in the recent search for security.

THE VALUE OF SLOGANS

What is the value to students of a study of our slogans? First, it is a different way of contemplating our history. We look at the cube from another side, and each side enriches our knowledge of, and appreciation for, the whole. Second, the students will add to their understanding of the psychological factors in our history and of practical workings in history. After all, "Rum, Romanism and Rebellion" swung a national election, and war slogans drove us to victory. Third, slogans provide a way of correlating the student's growth in the fields of English and history (this study was originally undertaken for a class in English). The student can list each slogan in columns headed "metaphor," "alliteration," etc. (if he does I'll warn him he won't find a single simile in the entire group). The slogans can be studied chronologically; there are astonishing results to be achieved here. Furthermore, English students are interested in how our language is enriched from other languages and through the appropriating of words by one group from another; i.e., city slickers commonly say "log rolling" and any Sunday School teacher will "stand pat" on social issues. Every institution and industry has yielded its pet phrases to make an expressive and dynamic political vocabulary. A table can be made showing the slogans and the field of activity from which borrowed.

A further correlation between the two disciplines is a study of the influence of the newspapers in coining and popularizing slogans. "Millions for Defense" was directly coined by newspapers. It was the press which took up the cry "On to Richmond" till the public was aroused. It was a reporter who gave "Sockless Jerry" his name and by this appellation he became famous throughout the nation. The "Boy Orator" was so widely printed that people still know it refers to W. J. Bryan. "Remember the Maine" was the cry of the rising yellow journals of 1898, and so loud did they cry that

it was printed on buttons and taken up by the more conservative papers. It was the press that seized upon "Too Proud to Fight" and disseminated it with added implications all over the country. During World War I, the fighting time was so short and the need of publicity so great that the only way to familiarize the public with these slogans was through the newspapers; after all, radio and commercials were as yet unknown. There was no time in 1917 for slogans to seep gradually into the public's knowledge.

In general, political phrases and slogans are terse, colorful, practical, imaginative and brief.

Not that every slogan is all of these, but modern ones are characterized by these five qualities. It is almost axiomatic that political slogans multiply in direct proportion to the extent of interest exhibited by the public. War slogans prove this. Many are of evanescent fame, but they were effective while they lasted and aroused the interest of millions of people.

Big, explosive, proud; having both selfishness and a sensitive conscience; possessing vivid imagination and a quick sense of humor; and displaying an innate, democratic ability to unite in a common endeavor—that is America as seen through her slogans.

Television for Teaching

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The time honored definition of history as a "written record of what man has thought and done" has literally been enlarged by the radio and television since it now must emphasize what man hears and what he sees.

Auditory acuteness that lends itself to hearing every drop of water that drips from the leaky faucet, and the keen power of 20/20 vision does not insure the possessor from meeting up with the statement: "That's not the way I heard it," or "That's not what I saw, and I was there." Obviously what to listen for and how to see involves development of skill and enlargement of background.

In part this has been recognized in the field of audio-vision by the program and lesson plans established as a result of the use of movies shown in the classroom. But since schools in general have not as yet found it practical or possible to equip the various classrooms with television sets, some guidance should be given to the student who has an opportunity to see the television programs at home or at the neighbor's house (if the neighbor is willing!). With the personal profit obtained from this source of entertainment and information, some of these gains can be transmitted to the group through class discussions. Surely here is a long avenue of motivation with many arresting intersections

(even dead ends and detours) waiting to be put to use.

Each classroom teacher may set up the objectives that are desirable for his particular subject including the general and specific objectives. Probably the opportunities for related material are greater in the fields of English, speech, and social science.

In my classes in American history, I have suggested the following general classification.

1. Facts about American history I never knew before.
2. Great Americans—past and present.
3. Significance of the American way of life.
4. Domestic issues.
5. The role of the United States in foreign affairs.

In his "Television Notebook," a student may keep a record of the information coming under these classifications and when the time is right he may correlate his material with the subject under discussion. For example, an interesting sidelight in American history was the program that showed how a workman with a sense of balance helped to clean up the Capitol—in this case it was a matter of shining the Capitol's dome. From that bit of necessary work, the program developed the idea of national pride in

this symbol of our American Democracy, which would be a good introduction to the study of the Constitution.

Or, as an example of the significance of the American way of life, what experience could be more enriching than that of seeing how a European interprets freedom? Toscanini portrayed the emotions of one whose nation has lost, and won the sense of freedom in his direction of his composition, "The Hymn of the Nations." This appeal to the emotions cannot help awakening a love for the freedom that America symbolizes. And it is important to the student to experience both the emotional and mental stimulation.

For programs that appear regularly, such as the "Crusade in Europe," there is material that could be listed under all of the classifications. For this type of program, if desired, a teacher could prepare a list of specific objectives or questions depending on what use she wished to make of this material for the class discussions. However, there is a possibility of over-doing

this question list, which may make drudgery out of a pleasant experience and which will tend to reduce the ability of a student in making his own evaluations and deductions and in limiting his imagination. Some comment in class, for example, about the qualities that have made great Americans may lead a student to come to his own conclusion about the part played by the average American in these war pictures and to look for the values that go beyond the surface facts. It is well for a student to recognize the heroic character of the average man and the part that this average man plays in meeting his daily obligations as a citizen who builds rather than destroys.

Above all, television gives to the student an opportunity to see the kinship in humanity. As one of my students commented: "I feel that I really know these men and women when I see them, and they do not seem too far above or beyond the folks I know. It makes me think and feel that I, too, have a chance to do something for my country."

Reviewing Historical Books

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So often, in a college course, the requirements call for a book review. For the professor this is an assignment of significance, of unique values. For the student, it is a task for which no model serves. Although the opportunity warrants praise, the written paper as the final product often lacks meritorious power. Therefore, a description of the process becomes a valuable guide.

To describe the skill, Charles Austin Beard once wrote:

The primary business of a reviewer is to tell his readers what the author of the book has set as his task, to give a sketch of the contents from start to finish, to place the book in its class, to indicate whether the author has fulfilled his task and how the book ranks or should rank in its class, and then, if possible, pass a considered judgment on the book as a whole.

What serious errors creep into book reviewing? When a student merely picks out a few passages and writes an essay on how he thinks the book should have been written, he is not engaged in reviewing—although he may be entertaining himself and his readers. A reviewer often fails to show how errors of fact and grammar invalidate the author's claim to competence. To explode and to sling adjectives of praise or blame show weakness on the part of the reviewer.

Some books are great in conception and in theme; some books are great by containing passages of merit. Book reviewing is no "hack" business. It is an art no less important for the advancement of literature than creative writing itself. It deserves to be so conceived.

Assuming, then, that he knows the full meaning of book reviewing, the student will want to build a review through steps. He will attempt an

expository review in which he gives an intelligent, accurate, and interesting portrait of a book, treats the book as news; explains it, but does not judge it. The able student produces a penetrating, well-balanced, brightly written exposition that instructs and diverts the reader. He shows criticism indirectly: (1) through the arrangement of the exposition, emphasizing some parts and (2) through full and accurate exposition, thus permitting the reader to furnish personal criticism. Then, having completed the exposition—having given a portrait of the book as he sees it—the writer may add formal criticism, as any book reporter should.

A proper review comes through the performance of distinct steps.

First, read the book carefully. Build a sketch of the book's content by writing notes.

Second, reflect upon the contents. Select, emphasize; thus, interpret. Put vitality into the treatment by having it reflect you as the reviewer.

Third, make a careful outline of the review. Insure the quality of the product through outlining.

Fourth, write a title which is the essence of your thought. Be imaginative and clever.

Fifth, compose the review. If the reading, interpreting, and outlining have been properly done, this is a comparatively simple task.

Sixth, polish the product as much as possible. See that the review is a real portrait of the book. Does it have individuality because it reflects your own personality?

SAMPLE BOOK REVIEW

The following review of the book *Theodore Roosevelt* by Henry F. Pringle won acclaim as an "able report" on the graduate level at the University of Chicago in the course: *The United States in the Twentieth Century*, taught by Dr. Bessie Pierce. It is submitted as a sample for critical analysis.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT

HENRY F. PRINGLE

The biography of Theodore Roosevelt, as pictured by Mr. Pringle, is a portrait of a colorful statesman who dominated the early

part of the twentieth century. In the description, there are many facets, chronologically portrayed: the university dude, the New York City reformer, the anxious Washington office-seeker, the courageous Rough Rider, the energetic President, the Bull Moose revolter, the righteous patriot, and the bitter anti-Wilsonite. The image portrayed is one that remains. Revealed for us are Roosevelt's strong will, a dangerous sense of the dramatic, keen interest in posterity, ability to see himself in the minds of others, love of intrigue, and capacity to forgive an opponent when there was need to use him politically. But, contrasted with this are the nobility of Roosevelt, his impetuous magnanimity, and his far-sighted vision in diplomacy. One sees a man of statesman-like size, judging conditions largely, and acting courageously always for the right.

The fascinating story begins with the days of "Teddie." Roosevelt enters public life as a legislator. The cowhand and rancher interlude (soothing his desolation over his young wife's death) precede the Blaine campaign of 1884 with the need for "compromise politics." The career, taking on momentum, leads us into Washington to the civil service job, through the police commissionership and mayoralty in New York City, and then back to Washington during McKinley's administration at which time Roosevelt was Secretary of the Navy. The Spanish-American War gave fame enough to its hero of San Juan Hill to secure for him the governorship of New York. The vice-presidency, politically arranged by Platt, and the assassination of President McKinley were good fortune: Roosevelt became President of the United States during "imperial years."

Theodore Roosevelt dramatized a cause: the cause of the average man in the middle stratum of economic life. The laborer did not accept his leadership because a Harvard accent and expressions (negations and restrictions) on high brow topics led to mistrust on their part. The wealthy class were not always sure of support. His foreign policy seems always recklessly executed, yet his administration was completed minus a war crisis. In other ways, too, Roosevelt's life was full of controversy. It was impossible to meet every issue with exact wisdom. (Untruthfulness was a much argued thesis.) Roosevelt moved, certain always

that his action was the right one, that other courses were corrupt.

The period of adolescence, one thread of character delineation used, consumes many pages laying foundation for the mature figure, through which adolescent traits emerged periodically. From there expands the life of two climaxes: one the mounting rise to governorship of New York and one the story of presidential years. The story of the bitterness against Taft, of personal hatred of Wilson, truced by World War I but later continued and expressed in writing and speeches, represents tragic years personally, but with much force upon the public attitude. This third phase is too briefly treated, for from 1910 on Roosevelt was historically significant in the eyes of the world.

Throughout the book, Mr. Pringle had a very high opinion of his subject. He gives praise generously. He enumerates, with an economy of style, his hero's faults and vanities. If ever he was harsh in his tone, it was in the Panama controversy with Colombia; casting aside his favorite eulogistic manner, Mr. Pringle forgets to muse but asserts. The whole panorama of Roosevelt's life is factual. Seventy-five thousand personal and official letters are sources. From persons designated as "confidential" authorities, the author presents anecdotes about Roosevelt which would not otherwise have found their way into the book. Quotations, footnotes, and documentary evidence make us feel that the story is convincing and comprehensive in its illuminating picture—true biography and at the same time true history.

Some Experiences in Teaching Local and State History

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Linwood Chase, in a recent article entitled "History for Today's Children,"¹ sets up fifteen objectives, which he states are now quite generally accepted for history teaching. Among these are seven which may be accomplished, or at least partly so, through the study of local and state history: (1) to appreciate the contributions of the past; (2) to be aware of one's social environment; (3) to understand that continuity and change characterize progress; (4) to develop a sense of time and the relationship between time and place; (5) to understand that history was made by common folk as well as by those of higher degree; (6) to interpret historical situations in developing an understanding of wholesome group living; and (7) to learn the historical method of establishing facts.

In this discussion, it is the writer's purpose to show how these objectives may be accomplished through the teaching of local and state history.

LOCAL HISTORY

An examination of courses of study shows

that local history generally forms part of the content of social studies in the primary grades. The method is usually in the form of integrated units including geography and history—and if one analyzes the method carefully—civics, sociology, and economics in a very elementary form. Every community offers a local geographical environment, local remains, and local customs. Everywhere some materials may be found for making the local past real—museums, markers, houses, stories told by older people, and the like. Any local past properly realized, not only contributes in a general way to a feeling of reality in dealing with the larger past, but supplies specific elements for reconstructing this larger past.

Perhaps a brief sketch of a unit which is annually worked out in the third grade of our campus laboratory school of Western Carolina Teachers College will serve to illustrate the objectives and methods which have been discussed above.

The region in which our institution is located was occupied by the Cherokee Indians until

about 1837, when they were removed to the West. In this removal, there was left, after the disunion of the Cherokees, a group of Indians under the leadership of Tsali, a stubborn but faithful Cherokee who finally became a martyr to the cause. "Old Charlie" consented to the demand of General Scott in that he would give himself to be shot if by so doing he could make certain that his people could live unmolested in his beloved mountains. Tsali was shot and Scott kept his promise and so a remnant of these Indians still live in this region. Today, the descendants of this remnant live on a small reservation some twenty-five miles from our school. The history of this region, therefore, is not far removed in time from the occupation by the Indians nor from the coming of the earliest white settlers. The situation makes an ideal study for local geography and history.

After a class discussion which prepares the pupils for an excursion, the group is taken on a field trip to see the source of a small stream which flows along the edge of the school grounds. The pupils follow this stream until it flows into Cullowhee Creek about one-fourth of a mile from its source. Their geographical learnings from this trip are the concepts of *divide*, *source*, *tributary* and *valley*. "Dix Gap," named for an Indian whom tradition says was killed there in his attempt to escape from the soldiers, is practically identical with the divide. This story told in conjunction with the geography of the region leads to a study of the Indians. Pupils soon learn through reading and listening to stories that their school house is built on the site of the mound where the Indians held their Green Corn Dance. Further study takes the pupils on a visit to the Cherokee reservation some twenty-five miles away. As the study continues, the pupils read or listen to Cherokee myths, the story of Tsali, or "Old Charlie," as the name is anglicized, and other tales of local interest. This study includes letter writing, clay modeling, drawing, and similar language activities.

After the story of the Indians is completed, the pupils learn of the story of the coming of the first white settlers to the region. Committees from the class interview the older inhabitants of the community from whom they learn the names of some of the earliest settlers; how

they came across the Balsam Mountains with their household goods piled on sleds; where they built their homes; and how they lived. They get information about the first schools—the kind of books, slates, drinking gourds used. They usually arrange an exhibit of these earlier school properties. The next step is to make a physical-political map of the community as it is today. These activities help the pupils to get a concept of the changes that have taken place over a period of about one hundred years. Their final activity consists of making a mural on which they depict the entire history of the community. Using many colors, they depict the Indians in several activities. Then they picture the advent of the earliest settlers on their sleds. Next, come the small mountain cabins of the pioneers; then, three pictures showing the development of the school building, the present building pictured with busses lined up in front and airplanes flying overhead. The churches are seen in the background.

From an analysis of these activities it becomes evident that the objectives listed at the beginning of this article were accomplished by the pupils on this maturity level. The enthusiasm with which the discussions, interviews, writings, and drawings are carried on convinces one that there is an added sense of reality of both the past and the present.

STATE HISTORY

The past two decades have witnessed an increased interest in state history. In most states, the course of study includes state history in one of the upper grammar grades or junior high school.

In addition to the values afforded by state history implied in the objectives set up in the first paragraph, the question might be raised as to the specific values of state history in this present day when one's aim is supposed to be centered in leading pupils to think in terms of world unity. The writer would like to suggest the following values:

(1) State history affords an opportunity for the study of pioneer life on a broader scale than is practical in the lower grades, yet in an area small enough to lend itself to a somewhat intensified study. (2) The state is the unit of government in the United States. The majority of laws that we are expected to obey are state

laws; we obey state traffic laws, state fishing and hunting laws, and state school laws. We look to the state for specific help in cases where health is involved—typhoid epidemics, checking the physical condition of school children, the maintenance of sanatoriums, and other health problems. We travel for the most part over state built roads. From a detailed study of any state government we get a typical pattern which shows the relation between the state and the federal government. (3) An intensive study of a state develops state pride. One readily agrees that this aim should not be unduly emphasized, but such pride can be justified. It will be recalled that a generally accepted objective of history teaching is to make the pupil aware of his social environment. In the second place, local or state pride is a sound basis for the motivation of worthwhile economic, civic, and moral undertakings. (4) State history affords an opportunity for pupils to become familiar with the lives of men and women who have made their contributions to the state and nation. If this phase of history is relegated to American history, some characters whose work was done within a given state would likely be wholly neglected. For example, the contribution of Archibald D. Murphey was invaluable to North Carolina, yet he was little known outside of his home state. (5) A study of state history affords an opportunity for pupils to become familiar with the details of events which have proved important in state and national history. For example, North Carolina children will be interested in learning the detailed story of "The Lost Colony," which has recently been popularized by the pageant produced annually on Roanoke Island. Again, the battle of Moores Creek Bridge is not usually mentioned by writers of United States history texts, yet this battle was a direct cause which led North Carolina on April 12, 1776, to instruct her delegates to vote for independence in the Continental Congress of 1776. (6) A study of state history gives pupils experience in following a coherent narrative which is less complex than is found in United States history, thus strengthening them for more advanced reading. (7) A knowledge of state history often throws light on important topics in United States history; for example, on states' rights,

public land policies, and on intricate state and federal politics.

Since state history is usually taught in the upper elementary or junior high school grades, the teacher is apt to have as his aim some concomitant learnings as well as the gaining of specific knowledge of history. History material may be used as a basis for improving the pupils in silent and in oral reading. Moreover, it is easy to find ways of motivating history at this maturity level.

Perhaps the writer's experience in teaching state history directly and from observing it being taught in a training school will serve to illustrate some methods and techniques.

In North Carolina, state history is taught in the eighth grade. In our laboratory school, the teacher and pupils have access to three basal texts and to considerable supplementary material. The work is enriched by various activities in drawing, map work, reports, dramatizations, and the like. One assignment which is invariably given is to show by colors on a desk-size map the regions originally settled by the several racial elements. Many pictures and scenes of persons and places characteristic of the three separate geographical places are used.

Perhaps the most helpful visual aid which the writer has used is a chronological chart or what might loosely be termed a "mural." This piece of work was done as a special project by two college students with the writer's general guidance.

After the history of the state (North Carolina) had been divided into large units on a chronological basis, the important events, persons, and dates within each unit were agreed upon. Appropriate symbols were selected to represent each event. These with important dates were made in silhouette style and pasted on white cloth. For example, one panel or unit bears the caption, "The Rip Van Winkle Period, 1816-1835." On this panel the enormous migration from the state is symbolized by covered wagons; the persistent attempts of a group of leaders to better conditions through public schools, to improve the roads and waterways and thus to stop emigration are depicted by showing the leader of the group in various poses as he was successful or unsuccessful. This device has been used successfully in both the

eighth grade and in college classes to guide students in the continuity of the history.

On the eighth grade and on the college levels, two types of dramatization have been used successfully. (The writer uses the same devices and techniques in college classes for the purpose of professionalizing the course.) One type, designed as a drill on historical personages, has the "Spirit of North Carolina" bring these characters from a screen representing an open book and each character gives a brief sketch of his life and work. A second type has been to weave leading episodes together in chronological fashion and to dramatize the chief features of each episode.

No activity has proved more stimulating than an exhibit of antiques of every variety gathered from the area represented by the laboratory school. Two girls, dressed in costumes of fifty

and one hundred years ago, acted as hostesses to the visitors from the college, from the community, and from the neighboring schools. The values of this project were manifest in the enthusiasm with which the pupils entered into the assembling of the materials and the arranging of the exhibit.

As a closing thought for this discussion on teaching of local and state history, a quotation from Henry Johnson's *Teaching of History* seems fitting: "History throughout the elementary school should abound in concrete details for visualizing persons, situations, events. In meeting this condition even trivialities by the standard historians may furnish the very touch needed to make the misty immortals of history really human."

¹ *The Packet*, D. C. Heath and Company (October, 1946).

The Five-Day News Survey Course

RUTH DUNHAM CORTELL

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Early last June, twenty leading American educators, headed by Dwight Eisenhower and James B. Conant, advocated among other important curriculum changes the impartial teaching of more current events in American high schools. At the present time, most schools teach current events in connection with other social studies courses, devoting one period a week to this type of instruction. Social studies teachers, of course, realize that one period a week is not enough time for a thorough and comprehensive study of important current events as they happen.

In order to permit interested students to spend more time studying current affairs, in 1938 our school established a one-year Current History course in the high school division. This course has become a regular part of our social studies program and has not interfered in any way with instruction in such courses as sociology, economics, civics, or the histories. In fact, it has aroused students to have more interest in those subjects and to realize their need for them.

The course is primarily a continuous current news survey, combined with a small amount of problem solving. A thorough and objective news survey consumes so much time that there is left only a small opportunity to instruct the students in the techniques of problem solving. I include problem solving only because we have no problems course in our social studies program, and I feel that students are entitled to have some practice in this important field. However, where a curriculum lacks space for both a news survey course and a current problems course, I would choose to have the news survey because of the many desirable objectives that may be attained by giving it.

It is not my purpose here to explain in detail how this course is organized and conducted. That has already been done in an article which appeared in the October 3, 1949, issue of the *Civic Leader*, a publication of the Civic Education Service, Washington, D. C. Rather, I should like to point out the many advantages of having a news survey course in the curriculum.

Any high school student may enroll in Current History and receive high school credit for completion of the course. No prerequisite is required other than ability to carry the work. Students who enter sometimes admit that they expect a "snap" course because there is no textbook. Most of them also admit to few reading interests other than in comics or sports. Their main assignment throughout a semester is to keep informed about important current happenings, and about the activities and views of important people. Under direction, and with help from the teacher, each student keeps a neat and permanent record of the information which he accumulates. The specific assignments to committees from week to week take the students to various outstanding newspapers and magazines of different viewpoints.

Students soon find that it is a full-time job to keep well-informed about current affairs. But their interest is quickly aroused, because, like all of us, they like to feel that they are an important part of the current scene. This kind of study makes them feel important and gives them self-confidence. Very soon they find themselves listening to discussions at home and participating in them. Very often, if there is no such discussion in the home, the student himself will start one. Even the poorest student who completes this course emerges from it with considerable knowledge of prominent people and important events. He becomes very conscious of the fact that many people are greatly concerned about the future of America. He realizes that many leaders of ability and integrity do not agree about ways to solve our problems. His interest is especially aroused in those problems which seem to affect him most. The better students, of course, go much further than this.

Through the years, I have seen many of my good students become actively interested in public administration, the foreign service, teaching, social work, and similar fields of activity. I attribute much of this interest to the fact that, while in school, they were given *time*, and *were required* to read widely in current news literature of all kinds.

Excellent work is being done in many modern problems courses, where students investigate problems of the utmost importance. Too often, however, obsolete textbooks and references are

used. Too often, the problem under study is not prominent in the news at the time it is studied. Too often, the teacher must be a slave to the textbook or the syllabus. If he is considering conservation, for example, in Chapter III, he will not or cannot skip over to Chapter XV for a study of labor problems at the time when the question of amending the Taft-Hartley Act is prominent in the news. An advantage of the Current History class is that the teacher and the students can go directly to the news of the day for the selection and study of the problem. The Atlantic Pact is a good example of this. In what textbook could you find reference to this very important subject early in 1949? In the newspapers and magazines, Current History students found the text of the document, speeches of prominent people about it, personal interviews with our foreign policy leaders, editorials for and against it, views of Wisconsin representatives, many pro and con arguments, and articles giving much historical background. And their class is organized in such a way that they can take sufficient time to consider the Atlantic Pact fully and really learn about it, without having to feel that it is only a minor supplement to some other subject.

I think that the most valuable result of this type of instruction is that the student acquires so much current information for and by himself. This is his own accomplishment and he believes in it. When we talk and preach and lecture to him, he just goes to sleep on us. He doesn't believe us anyway, or doesn't care. But when he studies the current news daily and continuously for a whole year, at the end of that time he knows what a turmoil the whole world is in, how complex and difficult our problems are, and he realizes that every citizen must do everything he possibly can to help. Last year my students became keenly aware of many important current problems and greatly interested in them. I feel that their established habits of reading and thinking about these matters will stay with them and carry over into their community life later.

In the Current History class, the teacher has an advantage in that he can devote considerable time to the study of the background, careers, activities, and viewpoints of prominent leaders. Students are very interested in living people.

They are amazed to discover how many of our political, labor, business, and professional leaders came from the grass roots and worked hard and long to do what they have done. Students gain a great deal from comparing the opposing viewpoints of these people. They also get ideas about what they themselves might do in the occupational field and how to go about doing it. And they develop a feeling of respect for the abilities, ideas, and opinions of an obviously capable leader, whether they happen to agree with his viewpoints or not. In which of our usual social studies classes would the teacher find time to permit his students to study like this?

In doing their class and notebook work, students acquire a number of practical skills and attitudes. They learn how to arrange, classify, and file a large amount of varied illustrative material. Often they have to make cross-references in the notebook. They learn how to interpret current maps, charts, graphs, and cartoons. They have to make legible and understandable outlines, and they have to take clear and permanent class notes for testing purposes. They learn how a committee operates and functions and what a chairman has to do. They assume responsibility for making certain information available in some form to their classmates. Often they become aware of their need for certain formal instruction in some matters, and they will ask for this in order to get their work done. In short, they come to feel that they

need their teacher and that he has a valuable service to render to them.

If a teacher has a great interest in current events and a large amount of self-restraint, he can safely assume the responsibility for this type of teaching. It is no small job to keep abreast of twenty-five or more students who are searching daily for current information. This work requires a teacher who is well-informed and well-acquainted with the many sources of information of various types and viewpoints. It also requires a person who can keep his own desires and opinions out of the picture. When a teacher sees his students floundering and struggling through something important, it is sometimes very difficult not to take over and lecture. Also, it may prove very difficult for some teachers to refrain from saying, for example, "The Taft-Hartley law should be repealed," or "The Taft-Hartley law should not be repealed." If teachers were to express their own opinions, or attempt to influence the opinions of the students, the people of the community would soon conclude that the schools could not be trusted to handle controversial issues.

An important reward for the Current History teacher is the acquisition of much knowledge about current issues. But if he can send his students out of the school with enthusiasm and with their own fresh and novel viewpoints and ideas about how to solve our complex problems, he is well rewarded, for he has made an important contribution to democratic living.

A Social Studies Unit on the Air Age

C. C. HARVEY

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I OVERVIEW

This unit of work is designed to help teachers and students of social studies classes make the study of how aviation is influencing modern life an enriched social experience. The chief aim is to present ideas for teaching the geographical, economic, political, and social implications of the Air Age from the viewpoint of the social studies.

Today, the school, especially the secondary school, has a definite responsibility to help

students develop understandings, appreciations, attitudes, and abilities in regard to aviation and its possible effects upon their lives. Few people are conscious of the impact of the Air Age upon modern life. We are living in a world which is in a constant process of rapid change—due in no small measure to the amazing advances being made in aviation. It is obvious that aviation is one of the important factors in the survival or destruction of civilization.

(Continued on page 75)

Topic T4. The Indians of North America

STUDY OUTLINE

1. Pre-historic Man in America:
 - Folsom Man; Indian origins; Mound-builders, cliff dwellers, &c.
2. Indian Civilization in Mexico, Central America, and Peru
3. Principal Indian Tribes of North America and where they lived
4. Study in detail the Indian Tribes of one section
 - a. Algonquins or Iroquois
 - b. Indians of the Southeast or Southwest
 - c. Sioux or Blackfeet
 - d. Indians of the Pacific Coast
5. Indian Civilization
 - a. Numbers of the Indians
 - b. Clan and tribal organization
 - c. Family relations; dwellings; house-life
 - d. Religious beliefs and customs
 - e. Hunting and fishing; methods of agriculture
 - f. Concepts of property and ownership
 - g. Modes of travel
 - h. Intertribal relations and wars
6. Relations of the Indians to Europeans
 - a. Occupation and purchase of Indian lands
 - b. Organization of trade with Indians: by individuals, by companies, by colonial laws. *Coueurs de bois*
 - c. Wars of extermination in English colonies
 - d. Treatment of Indians by Spaniards and French
 - e. Attempts to convert to Christianity by French, Spaniards, English
 - f. Effect of Indian-European intercourse upon each

AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

- Vanishing American Art (16 mm. sound film; 10 min. Indian arts and crafts). United World Films, RCA Building, 30 Rockefeller Center, New York 20
- Prehistoric Man in North America: Life of the Eastern Woodland Indians; Life of the Pueblo Indians; Life of the Plains Indians (filmstrips, with manuals). Society for Visual Education
- Indian Life (filmstrip, with guide). Informative Classroom Picture Publishers
- The Story of the Indians (25 slides). The Pageant of America Lantern Slides, by Yale University Press
- #### HISTORIES
- J. T. Adams, *Album of American History*, I
- L. Farrand, *Basis of American History* (The American Nation, vol. 2)
- J. Fiske, *Discovery of America*, I
- E. Huntington, *The Red Man's Continent* (The Chronicles of America, vol. 1)
- F. Parkman, *The Jesuits in North America and The Conspiracy of Pontiac*
- H. I. Priestley, *The Coming of the White Man* (A History of American Life, vol. 1)
- P. Radin, *The Story of the American Indian*
- A. H. Verrill, *Our Indians*
- C. Wissler, C. L. Skinner, W. Wood, *Adventurers in the Wilderness* (The Pageant of America, vol. 1)

STORIES

- M. R. Gilmore, *Prairie Smoke*
- E. R. Gregor, *The War Chief*
- G. Robinson, *Robeen and Sachim Bird*
- F. Rolt-Wheeler, *In the Days before Columbus*
- W. Thompson, *The Circle of the Braves*

SOURCES

- H. S. Commager, A. Nevins, *The Heritage of America*, no. 17
- A. B. Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, I, 203-206, 318-324, 501-507, 525-528, 557-559; II, ch. 18
- Old South Leaflets*, nos. 21, 22, 52, 87, 88, 143, 155

INDIAN INFLUENCES UPON AMERICAN CULTURE

The extracts from Governor Fletcher's Journal illustrate the symbolical and metaphorical language of Indians upon formal occasions such as treaty making. The Europeans, you will note, followed Indian conventions. The second quotation is from the historian, Edward Eggleston, and suggests the manifold gifts of the Indians to American culture.

1. Extracts from the Journal of Governor Benjamin Fletcher's Visit to Albany, Sept. 17-Oct. 5, 1696.

His Excell: called the Sachems together and spake. . . . Brethren

I do acquaint you from my most illustrious Master the King of Great Brittain France and Ireland that he will alwayes extend his gracious proteccion to you and as a seal of it His Majesty has commanded me to deliver you these presents to keep bright the Covenant Chain from all rust and to strengthen it in behalfe of all his Majestyes subjects, not only of this Province, but those also of New England, Connecticut, the Jerseys, Pensilvania, Maryland and Virginia.

A List of the presents sent from the Kings Most Excellent Majesty & given to the Indians (viz^t)

24 blew Coats [laced wth broad Lacey]	1 barrell powder
24 laced hatts	400 weight lead
24 pr shoes with buckles	1000 flints
24 Shirts	1 grose of tobacco pipes, wood & tinn
22 dozen hose	
30 gunn barrils & locks	2 grose knives
30 brasse kettles	6 pound vermilion
prime cost in England of the above goods £200 sterling.	

Sanonguirese a Sachim of the Mohagues was Speaker Brother Caijenquiragoe [Indian name for Gov. Fletcher]

We returne you thanks for what you have said the day before yesterday in condoling of our losse, and for the kettles which you gave us to boyle our victuals in the room of those that are lost by the enemy as also for the two Belts of Wampum given us as a token of yor sincerity, by which our hearts are mightily rejoiced and lifted up in this our poor condition. . . .

Dackashata a Sachim of the Sinnekes was Speaker Brother C—* . . .

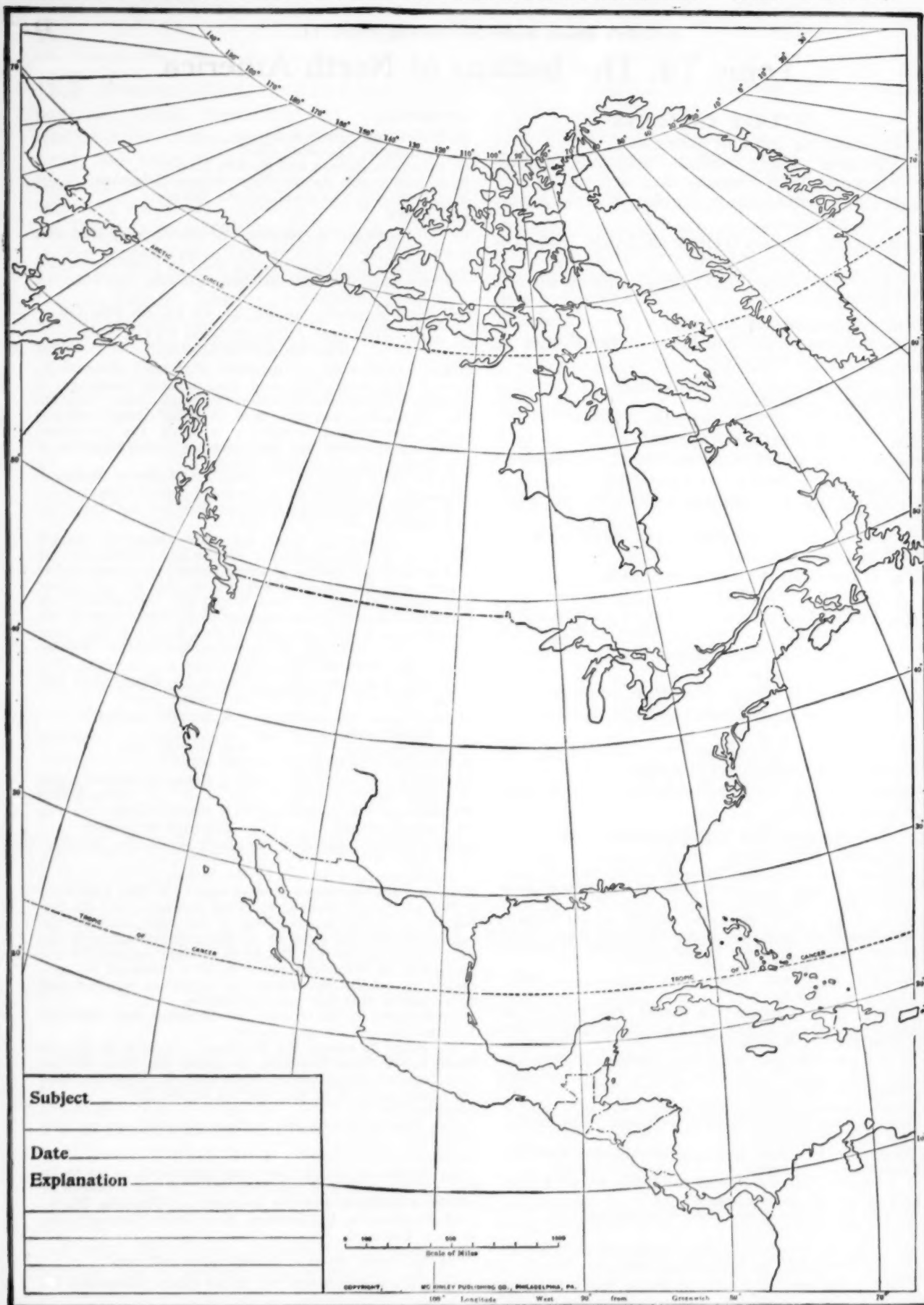
We come to renew the Covenant Chain with all the brethren of New England, Connecticut, New Yorke, the Jerseys, Pensilvania, Maryland & Virginia that they may partake of the warmth of the fire. . . .

Brother C—
The Tree of safety and welfare planted here we confirme it.

Brother C—
As the tree is planted here and confirmed, so we make fast all the roots and branches of it, all the brethren of the Five Nations and the brethren of Virginia, Maryland, Pensilvania, the Jerseys, New Yorke, Connecticut, & New England. . . .

* In the original the name is spelt out in each case.

¹ This is the fourth of a series of History Topics for American History, prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.



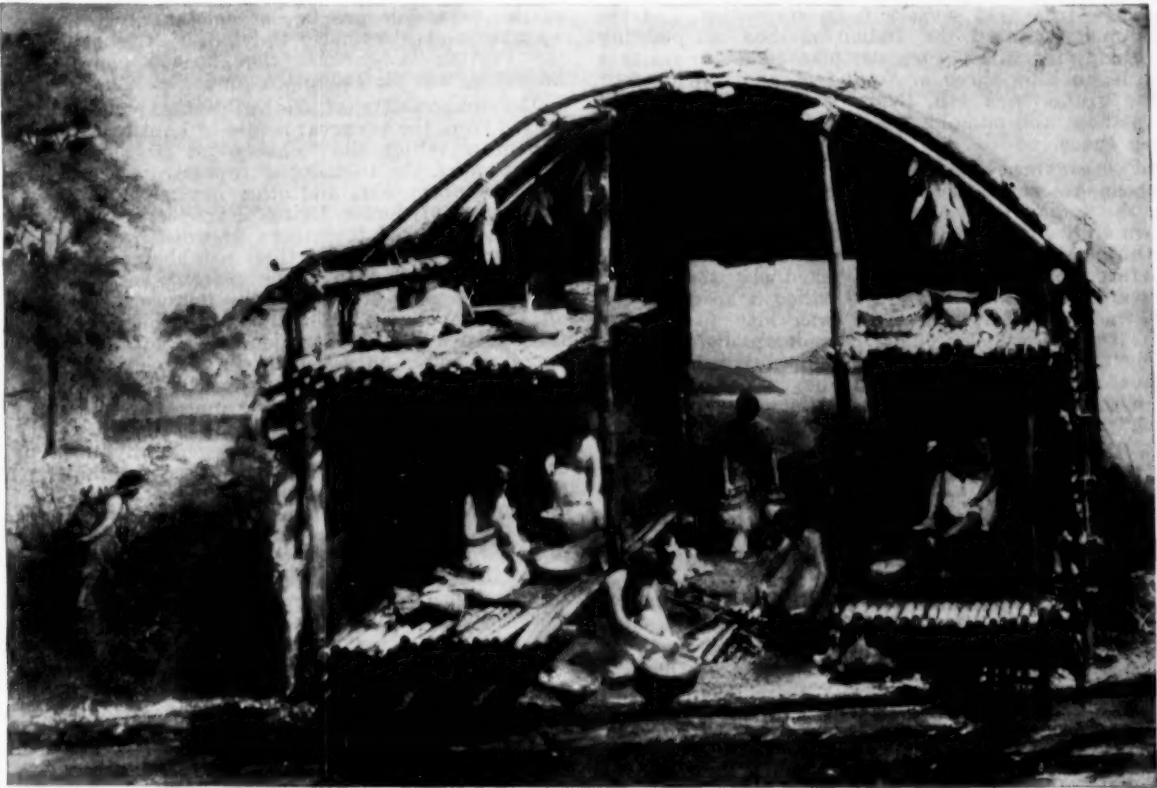
Subject	
Date	
Explanation	

MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T4. NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS.
 Locate the principal Indian nations of North America.

INDIAN LIFE



This interior of a Blackfoot Indian tipi (tepee) or tent shows some of the features of life common to the Plains tribes: dwelling, utensils, fire, clothing, decorations, hair-do. How many articles can you identify? Can you find anything in the picture that shows European influence, that is, was not native to the pre-Columbian Indians?



Notice, in this cross-section view of an Iroquois bark house, that eastern woodland Indians built different dwellings from those of the Plains tribes. What are these Iroquois doing in preparing corn? Compare the Iroquois utensils, clothing, etc., with those of the Blackfeet. Lacking hardware, before the white man came, how was the bark house constructed? Is it correct to show only dogs as tame animals, before the coming of Europeans? Was dog ever eaten by the Indians?

These true-to-life views of Indian life are taken from photographs by the American Museum of Natural History, New York.

[After the sachems had spoken, Governor Fletcher concluded:]
Brethren.

I have heard what you have said, and have here renewed the Covenant Chain with all the Five Nations the Mohaques, Oneydes, Onnondages, Caijougues, and Sinnekes, in behalf of the Brethren of this Province, Virginia, Maryland, Pensilvania, the Jerseys, Connecticut & New England; and I assure the Five Nations of his Maj^{ties} proteccon. I have provided for you some victualls and drink to drink the King's health, and in confirmacon thereof that it may last as long as the sun & moon endures I give this Belt Wampum.

The principle Sachim of the Mohaques called—Oheee

The whole Assembly answered Heeeeee Hogh.

The principle Sachim of Oneyde called—Oheee

The whole Assembly answered Heeeeee Hogh.

The principle Sachim of Onnondage called—Oheee

The whole Assembly answered Heeeeee Hogh.

The principle Sachim of Caijouge called—Oheee.

The whole Assembly answered Heeeeee Hogh.

The principle Sachim of Sinneke called—Oheee.

The whole Assembly answered Heeeeee Hogh.

In the evening His Excell. did appoint the principle Sachims to meet him at a private conference next morning.

(Albany, Sept. 17-Oct. 5, 1696; *Documents Relating to the Colonial History of New York*, IV, 235-239 passim.)

What was the purpose of giving presents? What special act sealed formally the provisions of the treaty? Can you find out how Indians interpreted or "read" wampum belts as records of events?

2. The Indian manner of living, learned from the climate and the hard necessities of the wilderness, afforded many suggestions to the colonists. In Virginia, as in New England, the planting of the Indians' corn saved the first settlers from starvation, and the white men imitated the Indian method of planting and cooking it. . . . The corn was planted as our farmers plant it, in hills three or four feet apart, with four or five grains in a hill. Beans grew about the stalk then as now, and pumpkins or squashes filled the intervening space.

The very names of our dishes are witnesses that the European-Americans learned many ways of cooking from the Indians. Pone, hominy, samp, succotash, and supawn are words borrowed from the aboriginal tongues. . . . On a hot stone, or the bottom of an earthen vessel set before the fire, the aboriginal baked what the pioneer afterward baked on his hoe and calle^d a hoecake; the toothsome southern "ash-cake" was also first made by the squaws, who shrouded it in husks before committing it to the fire. . . . They nourished infants and invalids with maize-gruel, and they were before us also with the merry pop-corn—"the corn that blossomed," as the Hurons called it.

. . . They used maize for many other things: of the meal they made poultices; with a bowl of mush, given by the bride to her new lord, some tribes celebrated marriages; by means of the grains of maize, to represent a penny or stiver, the savage cast up his accounts with the trader; and, by putting them into gourds and turtle-shells, rattles were made. The husks they braided for mats and wrought into baskets, into light balls for some of their games, into salt-bottles, and even shoes, long before the white man took the hint and made of them chair-bottoms, floor-mats, and collars for horses.

From the aborigines the settlers learned the use of other articles of food, such as the persimmon of the South, and the so-called ground-nut of the North. Penn found the savages eating baked beans, as white people do yet in Boston. The festoons of drying pumpkin in the frontiersman's cabin are imitated from the Indians.

. . . The Indians were not epicures. Even their varied

preparations of maize must have been insipid from the lack of salt in most of the tribes. But a savage appetite is not fastidious. Putrid meat, whole frogs, the intestines of the deer just as taken from the animal, the fish-oil or bear's oil, even when rancid, were not refused. Fruit was not suffered to ripen, lest others should find it; the tree was felled, and the fruit, sour or acrid as it was, consumed at once.

The Indian's wigwam was too easily made and too well suited to the pressing needs of the settlers, not to be occasionally used. All the tribes in the country east of the Alleghanies built bark-houses, though of varying degrees of excellence and stability. . . . In Virginia, the primitive cabins of Jamestown borrowed the bark roof and other features from the wigwam. The best of these cabins were decorated with brightly colored Indian mats, which the exiled gentry of Lord De la Warre's time playfully compared to "arras hangings and tapestry." In Massachusetts many of the poorer settlers dwelt at first in tents and booths, and for a long time after in wigwams. In Maryland, the first comers shared an Indian village with the original owners. In East Jersey, the settler erected in a single day a wigwam that served him until he could build a palisade house. The Quakers in West Jersey were glad to winter in Indian wigwams at first. . . .

With the bark-cabin, with maize, and with tobacco, came the only social customs derived from the Indians by the colonists. When a wigwam was to be built, land to be opened for corn, or other difficult work to be done, the Indian called out all of his neighbors; the husking of the maize, too, was always attended by a merry crowd. Such customs were well suited to the physical and social wants of a community in the wilderness; the "house-raising," the "wood-chopping," and the "apple-peeling" came to be as universal among the colonists as among the Indians. In New England, the word "bee" was invented as a generic name for parties of this sort. The practice of smoking together by the wayside and elsewhere, in sign of friendship, which the Puritan law-makers thought too pleasant to be harmless, was an Indian custom. . . .

The make-shifts of the wilderness were early acquired from the savages: modes of hunting, of trapping, and of traveling, the "blazing" of trees to mark new forest-paths, the twisting of ropes from the inner bark of the slippery elm, and other devices for meeting the exigencies of forest living. For years the Plymouth pilgrims pounded their corn in wooden mortars, after the primitive manner of their neighbors; and the same practice prevailed in other pioneer settlements. The Virginians were still using the fish-weir at the period of the Revolution. When the Southern or Western farmer, dressing his swine, drops hot stones into a barrel of water until it boils, he makes use of a device common to those tribes of Indians that had only wooden vessels. The making of sugar from the maple was practiced by the Indians, who boiled the sap in earthen pots. The pine-knot candle, so generally used in the cabins of the colonists, had lighted the smoky wigwams, no doubt, for ages before Europeans arrived. The canoe made by excavating a log is still in use: the Indian wrought it painfully by burning the wood and scraping it out with shells or stones. . . . The birch-bark canoe—the Indian's masterpiece—still holds its own among the Northern trappers, guides, and *voyageurs*, as does also the ingenious net-work snowshoe. So, too, the dressing of skins with the brains of the animal, and the making of basket-splints by pounding ash-wood until the "growths" separate, are lessons which the frontiersman learned from the savage.—Century Magazine, vol. 26, pp. 98-100.

In eastern North America, of what were Indian wigwams constructed? List the items of Indian culture adopted by the white settlers. Can you name Indian contributions to our culture in addition to those mentioned by Eggleston?

(Continued from page 70)

It has been said that we are running a race between education and destruction. Time is of the essence. It may be that aviation holds the secret for abolishing future wars. Without aviation, the atomic bomb would not be nearly so effective as a weapon of warfare. Without modern aviation, opportunities for conflict or cooperation among peoples of the world would certainly not be so important.

There are many reasons why social studies classes should study the social implications and effects of the Air Age. The lives of all citizens are influenced by aviation. In the future, everyone will make some use of it—even if it is only to send an air-mail letter.

A unit on aviation would fit into almost any social studies class in high school. It would be especially suitable for use in such courses as orientation and citizenship in the ninth grade, world history or geography in the tenth grade, and American history or problems of democracy in the eleventh and twelfth grades. It is suggested that the unit be studied as early as possible in the school year, and that the topic of aviation be given emphasis whenever appropriate later in the courses. Current events are studied in almost all social studies classes, and aviation certainly is one of the most prominent current topics.

The general plan of the unit is to start with activities dealing with aviation built around the interests of students. Most students will already have some knowledge of aviation as well as be interested in many aspects of the topic. Activities are next suggested which deal with the historical development of aviation. Then an examination is made of the airplane as a means of transportation and communication, how it has changed geography, aviation practices, terms, the aviation industry, and the like. Last is a somewhat philosophical discussion of changes brought about by the airplane, how it is influencing world relationships, modern life, and how it may change the future.

As presented here, the unit is more theoretical than practical. When the time comes for putting it into practice in a course, the teacher and students should plan together and adapt it to local conditions and resources. They should

decide on activities to be carried out and discussions to be held. The key to making the unit successful is to capitalize on the interests and enthusiasm of students and to use their ideas.

II UNDERSTANDINGS TO BE DEVELOPED

1. The development of aviation has been closely connected with modern history.
2. Aviation influences the lives of all people living at the present time.
3. We are living in a world community.
4. Development of air travel and transportation has created new national and international problems.
5. The Air Age has brought about conditions which make it imperative that we learn to get along with other nations.
6. The airplane has made the world smaller, but at the same time it has made more of the world accessible to people.
7. The airplane has made parts of the world which formerly were of little or no importance very important to us today.
8. The Air Age has changed our ideas of geography and of the relationship of various parts of the earth.
9. The airplane has brought many social benefits and hazards to the world in health, recreation, safety, family life, shifts in population, etc.
10. The airplane affects the industrial life of the community, state, nation, and world.
11. Aviation provides jobs for millions of people.
12. The airplane is the instrument by which nations can carry on most destruction with the atomic bomb, bacteriological warfare, etc.

III APPRECIATIONS AND ATTITUDES TO BE DEVELOPED

1. An attitude of critical thinking.
2. An attitude of following changing institutions and trends in society.
3. An appreciation of the work of those who have been leaders in the development of aviation, including the mechanical and scientific inventions on which it is dependent.
4. An attitude of goodwill and cooperation with neighboring nations.

5. An appreciation of the efforts of those who are trying to solve the national and international problems which have originated from the Air Age.
6. An attitude of intelligence and open-mindedness toward the rapid expansion of aviation.
7. An attitude of discrimination between accurate and unreliable information about aviation.
8. An attitude of wanting to share the benefits of aviation with all nations and peoples.
9. An appreciation of how aviation can be used to make a better and more pleasant world in which to live.
10. An appreciation of America's work as the pioneer nation in the development of modern aviation.

IV ABILITIES TO BE DEVELOPED

1. Ability to make use of library facilities to find material on aviation.
2. Ability to use aviation words intelligently enough to read articles and books on aviation and its social, geographical, economic, and political implications.
3. Ability to understand the domestic problems growing out of the Air Age and alternatives for their solution.
4. Ability to understand world problems of the Air Age.
5. Ability to see the inter-relationship and inter-dependence of the whole world.
6. Ability to understand the new concepts of time, space, distance, and direction which have resulted from aviation.
7. Ability to read global maps, charts, etc., intelligently.
8. Ability to understand how the Air Age has changed our concepts of geography—to understand global geography.
9. Ability to understand how aviation has made parts of the world which were formerly of little importance, very important to us today.
10. Ability to use such terms as latitude, longitude, circles, zones, meridians, parallels, degrees, tropics, and other measurements on maps and divisions of the globe intelligently.
11. Ability to recognize distortions on various kinds of flat maps.
12. Ability to plan and cooperate with others in solving the problems of the Air Age.

V POSSIBLE APPROACHES

There are a number of methods which would be appropriate for beginning this unit. The best method would depend somewhat on the particular class in which it is being taught. As already stated, it should be based on the interests of the group of students and they should have a part in planning it and putting it into operation. Here are some possible approaches to the beginning of the unit:

1. Arrange a field trip to the nearest airport. By taking the students through the airport, letting them see the various functions which it performs, and listening to the personnel explain something about their work, much interest would be aroused. Questions would arise and lead to activities.

2. Show a film on some aspect of aviation. This might be a film such as "Aerial Map Reading," which may be secured from the U. S. Navy Department, or a more popular type film such as "Our Town Builds an Airport," produced by the Civil Aeronautics Administration. A wide variety of films on aviation may be secured. Most of these are listed in the "Film Bibliography of Aviation and Related Fields," U. S. Department of Commerce, Civil Aeronautics Administration.

3. Let the group make a "bulletin-board" newspaper or display dealing with aviation and related subjects. This could be composed of clippings from newspapers, pictures from magazines, drawings by students, and materials secured from various aviation companies and government agencies.

VI ACTIVITIES

After a start has been made, the best source of activities will be the ideas of students who comprise the group. If they are given an opportunity to work on the aspects of the topic in which they are interested and to exercise their own initiative and resourcefulness, one activity will lead to another. Each activity will suggest others which might be appropriate.

Following are some activities which might be undertaken. They are numbered merely as a convenient means of writing them down; no attempt has been made to list them in order of their importance or in a convenient sequence for the unit.

1. Let students write down the topics or questions about aviation or the Air Age in which they are most interested. These might come under two headings: (1) Why I am interested in aviation, and (2) What I want to know about aviation. Use the topics and questions which result as a basis for group discussion and the development of other activities.

2. Spend a few days studying the history of aviation. This should include information about interest in aviation before the Wright Brothers, other pioneers in the development of aviation, the contributions of America and other nations in the development of aviation, inventions on which airplanes depend, the part aviation plays in modern warfare, and how aviation is aiding progress in many lines of endeavor.

3. After the group has discussed the history of aviation, it might be well to take up how aviation affects the particular community in which the group is living. Such topics as air mail, air travel, air freight, nearby airports, etc., might be studied. Specific activities might include: (a) A committee of students could interview the manager of the local or nearest airport to find out who owns it and how it is managed. (b) Another group might write to the regional office of the Civil Aeronautics Administration to find out the number of airports in the state, where they are located, and how they are classified according to ownership or management. (c) A bulletin board committee might arrange a display of airport activities consisting of pictures from magazines and advertisements. (d) A map could be made of the state, using the information obtained from the CAA. (e) A panel discussion might be arranged on "How Aviation Has Influenced Our Community," "Why We Should Be Interested in Aviation," "What We Should Know About Aviation," and the like.

4. If a field trip was not used as an approach to the unit, it would be well to try to plan one sometime while the unit is being studied. This should be well planned and organized. It should be arranged in advance with the manager of the airport to be visited, the students should be briefed on what to be on the alert to observe, and should be instructed in safety measures. They should take notes on the trip, talks made by the airport personnel, etc., and be ready for

further discussion when they return to the classroom.

5. On an outline map of the United States, have the students show the airways of the nation. Discuss such topics as: "What is an airway?" (Give them the definition of the CAA.) "Why is it necessary to have airways?" "Why is it necessary for the federal government to control aviation?" "International airways."

6. Plan a series of discussions and reports to show how America is linked with the rest of the world by airlines. The students will be amazed to learn how our nation is in daily contact through airplanes with South America, Europe, Africa, Asia, Australia, and almost all other parts of the world.

7. Let students plan imaginary air trips to various parts of the world. Valuable experience can be had by planning imaginary air trips to interesting places. This would include making arrangements for the trip, finding out cost of making the trip, how to get a passport, planning baggage and clothes to take, etc. In planning an imaginary trip, one of the most valuable activities would be plotting the route on global maps. Students will learn something about global geography. In plotting their route students will have to understand how airplanes travel to reach their destination in the shortest distance, and they will get a different conception of geography from what they learned when studying land and water transportation and communication. Students should also study the peoples in the countries of their imaginary visits.

8. From their readings, have students prepare reports on such topics as: "Why is it important for aviators and others connected with airways to know geography?" "How the airplane is useful in the distribution of perishable goods and in the rapid turnover of goods." "How aviation knows no topographical boundaries such as rivers, mountains, lakes, oceans, etc., and how such boundaries have changed in significance in the Air Age." "Air Age global geography." "Aviation terms with which everyone should be familiar." "Use which is being made of airplanes by the forestry service." "Use made of airplanes by farmers and ranchers." "Recent advances in aviation." "How distance is measured in air travel."

9. Make a study of the jobs connected with aviation. Point out to students that there are about 100 to 125 people working on the ground for every plane in the air, and that there are about 400 different types of jobs connected with aviation. Emphasize the fact that aviation is not "a man's world" as many believe but that there are many jobs connected with it which are being filled successfully by women.

10. Assign a group of about six students to prepare a panel discussion on the question: "How can we use the airplane to further international goodwill?" Some sub-topics under this question are: Ineffectiveness of natural barriers; ineffectiveness of buffer states; inadequacy of ground defense; impossibility of isolation; the airplane and new methods of warfare; how shall nations provide for their defense in the Air Age; how can the airplane be made an instrument of unity rather than aggression?

11. Arrange with another group of students to prepare a similar discussion on: "How can the United States use her air power to help promote international peace?" Sub-topics for consideration are: How the United States holds the key position because of wealth and air power; control of atomic energy, etc.; responsibility of our nation in helping maintain peace; what steps have already been taken to assure the future peace of the world?; what problems are involved?

12. Assign the topic "The United Nations and Aviation" to another group of students for study and discussion. Such topics as the following might be considered: Should there be an international air force under the control of the United Nations? Should there be an international organization to perform the same services for the entire world as the CAA does for the United States? Is freedom of the air desirable? Should strategic air bases in all parts of the world be internationalized?

13. Have still another group of students work on this question: "How can we use the airplane for more effective living?" Such social and economic implications of the Air Age as will be brought out here might be organized under these headings: Health; Recreation; Education; Population movements; Measure, currency, language; Safety; Industry and business; and Employment. Three specific questions to

be emphasized are: "How will the airplane affect the wealth of different parts of the world?"; "How will it affect education and the increase in knowledge?"; "What are the job opportunities offered by aviation for both men and women?"

14. At the end of the unit a committee should summarize the significant points which have been brought out, conclusions reached, topics which should be given further discussion, etc. Naturally the teacher will have much to contribute to this part of the unit. This group should be appointed early enough in the study of the unit so that they can be taking notes for their report while the activities are under way. Many points will be raised which should lead to projects in geography, civics, and history classes.

15. In the form of follow-up for the unit, there are many extra-class and community activities which could be attempted. For example, the class could hold an aviation exhibit showing the results of the unit on aviation. The group could prepare an assembly program on aviation. They could write some interesting articles for the school and community newspaper on aviation and what they had learned about it in the unit. They might plan a program for presentation before the Parent-Teacher Association or a local civic organization on what they had learned about aviation. They might present one of their discussions as a radio program through the facilities of a community or nearby radio station. They might attempt a number of such activities for about a week and call it "Aviation Week."

Note: It is essential that maximum use be made of audio-visual aids in carrying out this unit. There are many pictures which can be used which will stimulate interest and be of instructional value. Maps, charts, graphs, etc., should be used frequently—many can be secured from government agencies and aviation companies. Pictures and newspaper clippings can be used in all parts of the unit. Bulletin board displays and exhibits will play an important part. Techniques such as panel discussions and dramatizations can be used to make the unit a more realistic social experience. A display of advertisements connected with air travel would lend interest to the unit. A visit to the local

airport would be one of the most valuable parts of the unit. Follow-up activities to let others know what has been done in the unit should be one of the most important parts.

VII EVALUATION OF THE UNIT

It is obvious that many of the objectives set up for this unit are rather intangible, and how well they are achieved cannot be measured easily. Much of the evaluation must be in terms of the teacher's observation of changes brought about in the attitude and reactions of students, increase in their skills and abilities, and other factors.

The following method of evaluating the results of the unit seems appropriate:

1. Do the students understand that . . . ? (Refer to "Understandings to be developed," Part II).
2. Have the students grown in . . . ? (Refer to "Appreciations and Attitudes to be developed," Part III).
3. Have the students developed . . . ? (Refer to "Abilities to be developed," Part IV).
4. Have the students shown . . . ? (Satisfactory achievement in the written test given at the end of the unit).

INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

For the Students:

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- Ogburn, Wm. F., *The Social Effects of Aviation* (New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1946).

OTHER INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

Mostly for Students:

MAGAZINES: *Aero Digest*, Aeronautical Publishing Corporation, 515 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y.; *Air Facts*, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.; *Air lanes*, 340 W. 57th St., New York, N. Y.; *American Aviation*, American Aviation Association, Inc., Washington, D. C.; *Current Aviation*, American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio; *Science Is In the Air*, Street and Smith Publications, 122 East 42nd St., New York, N. Y.

ENCYCLOPEDIAS AND OTHER REFERENCES: *The World Book Encyclopedia* (W. F. Quarrie); *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia* (F. E. Compton); *Encyclopedia Britannica, Jr.* (University of Chicago Press); *World Almanac* (New York Herald Tribune).

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- "Film Bibliography of Aviation and Related Fields," U. S. Department of Commerce, Civil Aeronautics Administration. Revised 1948.
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- "Sources of Free and Low Cost Materials," U. S. Department of Commerce, Civil Aeronautics Administration, November, 1948.
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- "Aviation for Teachers" (A Study Guide for Elementary and Secondary School Teachers), U. S. Department of Commerce, Civil Aeronautics Administration.
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- "Air Transport and National Security," The National Air Council, 280 Madison Avenue, New York 16, N. Y.

The Teachers' Page

H. M. BOODISH

Chairman, Social Studies Department, Dobbins Vocational-Technical School, Philadelphia

We received several communications from teachers. The first one, which we are reproducing in part, is from Brussels, Belgium:

"There are many things here in Belgium which remind me daily of school and home. In that sense I do not feel so far away. The first Sunday in Brussels, for instance, I went around the corner to buy a paper from a small stand which typically, sells papers from a dozen countries. My curiosity was aroused by a large crowd which had gathered in the square. . . .

"As I approached the crowd this Sunday morning, I found a basketball game going into the second half. The goals were set in holes drilled in the cement blocks, and although they were braced with cables, they vibrated like giant tuning forks every time a long shot hit the backboard. The play was deliberate, to make a decided understatement, with the score 20-16 in favor of the visitors. Yet, a glance at those uneven paving-stones, and I understood better the type of game which was in vogue. I still shudder at the very thought of the condition of the extremities of the average fast-breaking U. S. player after a game on this court!

"I am amazed at the influence that the United States has exerted on this part of Europe. You can see it everywhere. Some influences are obvious immediately—basketball, American automobiles, the Coca Cola signs, and the bottles of that drink sold everywhere with sandwiches and hot dogs. Even the ever-popular merry-go-round now has a jeep along with the horses, chariots, and trolleys. Some influences are not quite so obvious, but are nevertheless as real.

"The most striking impression made on me this trip is the great influence America has exerted and continues to exert on this part of Europe, and how much attention is now given us by the Europeans. The United States is so important to the people here that our every national action is carried in the headlines of the papers daily. If Congress meets, or debates, or the President holds a press conference, or Acheson makes a single utterance, it's top news here just as it is in the States, and this is true

of many domestic as well as foreign affairs. The explanation is that whatever we do politically or economically influences these people vitally. A common saying is that when America sneezes, Europe catches pneumonia. I read the other day a long account of a Belgian political party conference which was called to determine policy. Throughout the entire meeting, there occurred the refrain: the United States is doing this, and probably will or will not do that, so our party must be guided accordingly.

"It is a sobering thought, though 'fact' would be more exact. Last Sunday, a well-informed Belgian put it this way: 'The United States today is in the position of Rome in the days of the Empire. A citizen of the U. S. is not only a citizen of the world, he carries world responsibility on his shoulders. He controls the future of western Europe. Looking at it from my personal point of view,' he continued, 'my future may depend on any national election. How I hope the American voter is well-informed on international and national issues, and votes wisely.' Over and over again, I find these people expressing the hope that our country may be led by able men, supported by citizens of mature political judgment. So far, the vast majority here in Belgium approve highly of our foreign policy, and have real confidence in the majority of our elected and appointed authorities. Of course, this generalization does not mean either unanimity on the part of the Belgians, nor agreement on the details of our policy.

"Whether we like it or not, we do have a heavy responsibility, a double responsibility: the welfare of America and of western Europe. This calls on us individually for a greater interest in foreign affairs, for more care in forming opinions and conclusions, for more attention to, and study of, international problems. . . .

Sincerely yours,

Daniel H. Thomas
(Professor of History
Rhode Island State College
Kingston, Rhode Island)"

This letter emphasizes a point felt or expressed by many teachers—the need to teach for world citizenship. How best to do it, in the face of the ever expanding curriculum is a perplexing problem. What shall we eliminate? Or, can we integrate the teaching of world citizenship with our existing courses in American history? To express it another way, can we afford to teach American history without teaching world citizenship?

The second letter is from the prolific pen of a contributor to *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*. The correspondent is also concerned with world citizenship, and particularly, in this letter, with democracy. The following is an excerpt from the communication:

"Democracy means justice for one thing. . . . Democracy, whether it is a capitalist society or one of social ownership (Communism or Socialism, if such terms can be used without confusing the issue) would have leaders. The democratic principle is that leaders would be chosen by the consent of the governed. But here we face a dilemma: if men by nature, and the 'defective' genes of their parents, divide into two different biological-intellectual classes, do the 'inferior' have any right . . . or power to decide matters of social policy . . . ? Either we let the inferior vote . . . and circumvent their will by 'wit, finesse and stratagem,' as John Adams wrote to Samuel Adams in September 1790, and induce them by such indoctrination to understand and accept 'their place in society' and 'look up to their betters,' or we deprive them of the vote. That could be done by Fascism as was done in Italy and Germany by Mussolini and Hitler . . .

"The problem of what constitutes substantial realization of the principles of democracy is not a political, social, or economic one, but a moral and psychological one. All men are equal because they are persons, invalid and unreliable 'tests of intelligence' to the contrary. Men just do not want to consider and treat all men as equals and live in society cooperating for mutual good and protection because they have learned fears of insecurity that, if they are democratic, they will be exploited. Hence they seek an egocentric personality integration of competition for independence to prove to them-

selves and others that they are as good, if not 'superior,' to others . . .

Sincerely,
RALPH B. GUINNESS
(Fort Myers, Florida)"

Here are some additional thoughts for teachers of social studies: how to reconcile for the student what seem to be diametrically contradictory philosophies, yet each acceptable singly in theory, individualism vs. collectivism; cooperation vs. competition; nationalism vs. internationalism.

Through overuse, the expression "We teach children not subjects" has lost much of its meaning, originally inherent in it. However, it is children we teach, and whether we do it by means of civics, American history, problems of democracy, or world history, our task as teachers is to help mold functional citizens. The only additional emphasis is that we expand the concept of citizenship beyond national borders. It will not be an easy task. It will require, also, similar efforts on the part of educators in other countries. Herein, perhaps, is one of the important tasks of *Unesco*.

The third letter touches directly on something we wrote about in an earlier issue of "The Teachers' Page." It reads:

"I have read with interest and pleasure your article "The Teachers' Page," in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* for November. Undoubtedly, Dr. Arbuckle is one of those "progressives" who have never faced classes of thirty-five to forty-five young people. Or perhaps he has done it on occasion for demonstration or clinical experiment—I don't mean that. I mean meeting the same classes every day for a whole term with a course of study to put across. Were he to do that, he would learn something of 'strains' and 'stresses.'

"In my way of thinking, discipline is fundamental first, discipline imposed by elders—then self-discipline after the rudiments are learned. I had a strange experience one time. For many years, I was connected with a privately owned boys' summer camp. Each evening Mrs. Krug and I took a short walk in the woods after supper. On one such walk we came upon a clearing where a mother bear and her cub were playing. We stood still and watched unobserved by them. The mother bear was trying to teach

the cub something, but he was too full of fun to learn. She finally cuffed him over the head with her paw and sent him into two somersaults. He regained his feet crying like a human baby and meekly walked to his mother for her evident forgiveness and a licking of his tears with her tongue.

To wild life—discipline and obedience are paramount—failure to learn could well mean death. Perhaps we human beings could well learn from the animals.

Sincerely yours,

HARRY E. KRUG

(Head, Department of Social Studies,
Northeast High School,
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania)"

Here we have another point of view regarding citizenship, one that concerns self-discipline and obedience. I am sure Mr. Krug doesn't want his advice taken literally by teachers, but he makes a significant point. There is a need in our programs of education (perhaps through our methods of teaching) for training in self-discipline and obedience. To be a leader one must learn to follow, but even to be a follower, as we pointed out in our last issue, one must learn to follow—intelligently. Whether progressivism is ineffectual in this respect in theory or in fact, or in both, is, of course, a debatable issue.

Visual and Other Aids

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

British Information Services
30 Rockefeller Plaza
New York 20, N.Y.

Hill Sheep Farm. 16mm. sound film. 19 minutes.
Rental \$2.50.

The beautiful glens of the Scottish Highlands present many obstacles to the hill sheep farmer, whose flocks are the basis of Great Britain's sheep industry. This film shows the daily life during the four seasons on a hillside farm.

Stills of this film are available.

Voice of Ulster. 16mm. sound film. 18 minutes.
Rental \$2.50.

This film shows the people of Northern Ireland working on their farms, in the mills, and in the shipyards, carrying out their ordinary duties. Among Ulster's important industries are agriculture, shipbuilding, textiles, heavy engineering and rope-making.

Taken for Granted. 16mm. sound film. 19 minutes. Rental \$2.50.

Showing the sewage disposal work performed by the local authorities in Middlesex, this film explains the whole system of sewage disposal so that it can be easily understood by general audiences.

Stills of this film are available.

Faster Than Sound. 16mm. sound film. 10 minutes. Rental \$1.50.

This is a study of tests made to break through the sonic barrier. For this purpose the testers constructed a model miniature pilotless machine, propelled by rockets, automatically controlled and flying under its own power. Its flight is traced by radar from the ground.

Stills of this film are available.

Coal Crisis. 16mm. film. 22 minutes. Rental \$2.50.

Dealing with the coal mining industry, this film presents the immediate and long-range problems of the Coal Board.

The Cumberland Story. 16mm. 46 minutes.
Rental \$6.00.

The Cumberland Story tells the story of the reorganization of an unprofitable coal mine.

Picture Sets:

Purchase price: \$1.00 per set except those marked (*) which may be obtained free on request.

*Modern China Making
Steel**

*Britain Goes Ahead**

*Road to Recovery**

The British China Clay Industry

The Carpet Industry in Britain

Training for Industry

B.I.S. Catalog of Filmstrips and Other Pictorial Material. The 45 filmstrips described in the catalog vary in length from 20 to 66 frames and deal with many subjects, including education, health and colonial development. All filmstrips are accompanied by lecture notes, and are available for sale at \$1.00 each.

The catalog also lists picture sets which may be purchased for \$1.00 per set.

Catalogs may be obtained free of charge from the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N.Y.

ABC Television News
American Broadcasting Company
New York City

Crusade in Europe is a series of 26 documented films, illustrating the review of World War II by General Dwight D. Eisenhower.

It was compiled and edited by *March of Time* through arrangements made with the 20th Century-Fox Film Corporation, which owns the television rights, from hitherto restricted films of the U.S. Army, Navy, Air Force, and Coast Guard, The British Ministry of Information, the National Film Board of Canada and other previously inaccessible sources.

Crusade in Europe begins with the signing of the Munich pact and concludes with the post-war period, showing Eisenhower's observations of the Allied Military Government and his visit to Russia.

Key Productions
18 East 41st Street
New York 17, N.Y.

How We Get Our Gas. Filmstrips with study guide. Black and white. Available to schools through their local Gas Companies or The American Gas Association, 420 Lexington Avenue, New York, 17, N.Y.

Arranged for use in the social studies curriculum from the fifth to the seventh grades, these filmstrips describe how natural and manufactured gas are produced and distributed to homes and factories.

Distribution of the series of current affairs filmstrips produced by the Wayne University Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau is now being handled by Current Affairs, Films, a division of Key Production, Inc.

The filmstrips are designed for use in junior and senior high schools, and the following

subjects are included in the first year's program:

The United Nations at Work
The Marshall Plan for European Recovery
Statehood for Hawaii
Planning Our Cities
Getting the World's News
L-M-C: A Plan For Industrial Harmony
Our Nation's Housing Problem
Crime Does Not Pay, But It Costs Plenty

These materials are presented free of charge to schools by a newspaper in their community. Arrangements with newspapers for sponsorship in areas throughout the country are now being made by the Bell Syndicate, which handles sales to newspapers.

Young America Films, Inc.
18 East 41st Street
New York 17, N. Y.

New Film Catalog

Issued June 15, 1949 as two separate catalogs, one for filmstrips and one for 16mm. films. The Young America catalogs list all films and filmstrips which are available to customers as of September, 1949. Each catalog is an attractive 8½ x 11 booklet. The 16mm. film catalog contains eight pages and lists 86 film titles, while the filmstrip and 2x2 slide catalog list 85 titles in its four pages. No significant changes have been made in the Young America prices over previous lists. The well-known "YAF Package Plan," consisting of a Model YAF Viewlex projector and \$30.00 worth of YAF filmstrips and slides, is continued for another year at the special price of \$91.50 which now includes the projector case previously priced additionally as an accessory. Both catalogs are supplied free of charge upon request. Copies can be obtained by addressing Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st Street, New York City 17.

The Ships and Harbor Series

Designed for social studies classes of elementary and junior high schools, the set includes six titles:

The Tugboat (34 frames)
The Passenger Liner (42 frames)
The Freighter (35 frames)
The Fireboat (42 frames)
The Harbor (35 frames)
The Lighthouse (37 frames)

The six filmstrips provide an important insight into the nature and function of four major types of ships, the busy harbor, and the lighthouse, and may be used to illustrate units about The Seaport, Water Transportation, Ships, Navigation, International Commerce, etc. The series is priced at \$16.50 for the six filmstrips complete with a *Teacher's Guide*.

New Outline Map Slides

Twelve basic outline maps on black and white slides have been issued for use in history and geography classes at all school levels. Each slide contains one standard outline map which can be projected on the screen, blackboard or paper, either for immediate study or for tracing and future work. The series includes outline maps of the following: United States, Canada, Mexico and Central America, North America, South America, Europe, Africa, Australia, Asia, Eurasia, Mediterranean Area, and the World. The set of twelve slides, together with a *Teacher's Guide*, can be purchased for \$3.75 per set.

YAF Filmstrip Box

The new YAF case is a sturdy, non-collapsible box which may be used for shipping and filing of filmstrips.

In the form of a partitioned drawer cabinet, the case uses a combination of maroon and gray colors, and holds from four to eight filmstrip cans. The new box will be supplied, without additional charge, as a component part of each pre-packaged set of YAF filmstrips.

Children of Early America. A series of film-

strips for history classes at the elementary and junior high school levels includes eighteen titles.

Each is an original story of a boy or girl who lived in an important period of American history. In each story, the life and times of the period are told through the eyes of the main character, with strict attention to authenticity and accuracy of detail. The eighteen filmstrips, each produced in full color art work, will illustrate periods from the beginning of America up to 1850.

History of Measures Series. Set of six filmstrips and *Teacher's Guide* \$16.50.

The six filmstrips in this series are designed to provide historical background information on our most important units and systems of measurement. Their purpose is to show the evolution of various measurement units, how the need for such units came about, and the various ways in which men through the centuries met those needs for more precise means of measurement. The series is closely correlated in all respects with other curriculum material for elementary and junior high school arithmetic and general mathematics classes.

The six filmstrips in this series are:

History of Our Number System (33 frames)

History of Area Measures (30 frames)

History of Telling Time (38 frames)

History of Weight and Volume Measures (36 frames)

History of Linear Measures (36 frames)

History of Our Calendar (35 frames)

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

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TREATING ATOMIC ENERGY IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Most social studies teachers are aware of the need for dealing with the social, political and economic implications of atomic energy as part of their teaching program. It is hardly possible to discuss any phase of world affairs today without taking this tremendous factor into consideration. At the same time, most

teachers probably feel rather inadequately informed about the subject themselves and are poorly equipped with practical teaching materials for presenting it. Social studies textbooks almost without exception give little useful basis for serious discussion of the subject.

This lack was brought out in an article by Dorothy McClure of the United States Office of Education in *The School Review* for Decem-

ber. A study of forty-seven social studies textbooks for junior and senior high schools published in the last four years showed clearly the cursory and superficial treatment of atomic energy in such books. Most of it consisted of accounts of the use of the atomic bomb in the Second World War and some references to the need for international control. Generalities are the rule, and in none of the forty-seven texts does any discussion appear of some of the crucial issues with which the American people must eventually contend.

As a suggestion along the line of more adequate treatment, Miss McClure presents a list of possible topics in the field of atomic energy which might be properly included in future social studies textbooks. They are worth thinking about, for these things are important now and are going to be a great deal more important in a short time.

As a background for understanding the whole field, Miss McClure suggests a study of the history and development of atomic energy research. The duties and operations of the Atomic Energy Commission—its control, purposes and place in the economic and political picture—is another topic. The existing relationship between public and private ownership and interest in atomic research and production should be touched on. Particularly important is consideration of current and future uses for radioactive isotopes in industry, agriculture and medicine. We can surely hope that it is in these, rather than in military, directions that man will find the most far-reaching effects of atomic investigation.

The development of atomic power plants will surely come within a fairly short time; our young people should be giving some thought to their effects on our economy and on the opening up of hitherto backward areas of the world. What of the many completely new types of industries that are or will be brought into being because of atomic energy development? When we remember, for example, the tremendous primary and secondary changes wrought by the invention of the automobile, it is not difficult to imagine that the coming of atomic energy will cause a similar or greater revolution.

One effect will be the changes in vocational opportunities; high school pupils might well

be encouraged to consider what the possibilities will be and what preparation they will need to make for them. And finally, in Miss McClure's list, attention should be given not only to the political problems of international control of atomic bombs, but to the general problems of atomic warfare and its effects on civilian populations. As long as the threat of the bomb exists, people should give some preparatory thought to their own protection against it and the danger of overwhelming panic in the event of another atomic war.

The "Atomic Age" is more than a newspaper phrase. It is in all probability a new way of life that the present school generation will become thoroughly familiar with. Its sociological implications may be foreseen and planned for to some extent, and our teaching programs and materials cannot afford to ignore or minimize it.

WHAT SHOULD OUR PUPILS LEARN ABOUT LABOR?

In the December issue of *The American Teacher*, David Weingast, Chairman of the Social Studies Department of East Side High School, Newark, N. J., reported on a most interesting and significant experiment recently carried on there. Newark is in a highly industrialized metropolitan area where the labor question is of personal importance to almost everyone. The central AFL council of the county, feeling that high school pupils did not understand sufficiently well the functions and objectives of unionism in American economy, asked Newark school authorities for school time in which to explain labor's viewpoint, just as business and professional men are often brought in to talk to classes, graduating seniors, and so on. It was agreed that a week should be allotted in the senior American history classes of East Side to labor men to talk to the pupils and answer questions. There was preparatory work on both sides. The pupils had a preliminary three weeks' study of labor history and problems, while the AFL conducted a special training program under a college specialist for the thirty-odd men who were to go to the school. Five topics, one for each day, were chosen and the usual procedure was for the speaker to talk for half a period and answer pupils' questions for the other half.

The experiment seems to have gone off remarkably well. The pupils were deeply and sincerely interested and the labor people gained new respect for the normal work of the school. The unions were able to show the value and importance of their cause, and at the same time were compelled to reveal, either by admission or failure to convince, their own weaknesses in such matters as high initiation fees, feather-bedding, racketeering and opposition to prefabricated houses and other cost-reducing developments. A questionnaire to the pupils after the week was over revealed that 200 of the 211 students felt that they had benefited from the project; 194 felt it should be repeated with some improvements; 184 would join a union if the choice arose; and 103 felt that their attitude toward labor had become more friendly because of the talks.

A project of this sort deserves wider application. In spite of the emotionalism that the labor question tends to generate, labor unions are here to stay; they are no longer merely a minor irritant in the economic picture. They are an integral part of it and must be so accepted. A large proportion of our students some day will have to deal with them as members or as employers. If we accept it as the school's proper task to equip youth for living in modern society, we should see that he understands this particular phase of it and how it affects him. Textbooks alone cannot do it. Our pupils hear the labor issue from one side or the other in their own homes constantly. They can surely gain a great deal by having a first-hand presentation in class of the whole question by both labor and management leaders.

MORE ABOUT INADEQUATE TEACHER TRAINING

In view of the various occasions when this department has commented on the inadequacies of schools of education, it is gratifying to see confirming opinions in print from time to time; although there is never any lack of verbal confirmation from teachers themselves. One of these appeared in the September *Journal of Educational Sociology* and in the *Education Digest* for December. It was written by Jules Kolodny of New York University and William Isaacs of Christopher Columbus High School, New York City. The authors feel that one of the fundamental reasons why our schools are

not accomplishing all that they might is the type of preparation our teachers too often receive.

In many ways our secondary and elementary teachers are better than those of a generation ago; especially are they better versed in how to teach. But their improvement is one-sided, say Messrs. Kolodny and Isaacs. If they come from liberal arts colleges and graduate schools, they are likely to be well-grounded in subject matter and general culture but poorly prepared in pedagogy. It is commonly recognized that some of the world's poorest teachers are members of college faculties, and their students going out to teach and knowing no better are apt to model themselves after their illustrious preceptors. On the other hand, teachers trained in teachers colleges and schools of education are almost certain to have received an overdose of pedagogy and too little liberal education. These professional training schools devote far too much attention to "education" courses, which endlessly overlap and duplicate each other.

The proper balance in training teachers will come, as Kolodny and Isaacs express it, "when the liberal arts and science colleges devote a little more time to orientating prospective teachers in pedagogic fundamentals, and schools of education spend very much more time in producing critically minded teachers. . . . What we need is neither teachers nor scholars, but *scholarly teachers*."

TEACHING ABOUT THE UNITED NATIONS

Last spring the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations adopted a resolution calling on the member states to increase their efforts to teach the purposes, principles, structure and activities of the United Nations and its agencies. This is a definite responsibility laid in large part on the schools and particularly on social studies teachers. It is to be presumed that it is being met in some degree in nearly every school but in a wide variety of ways. As in any form of current history teaching, the problem of effective organization and presentation of material is often difficult. An article by Sidney N. Barnett in *High Points* for October offers some valuable aids.

Mr. Barnett provides a series of monthly lesson plans. Each of them includes assignments, lesson procedures and suggested pupil

activities. Different approaches are used in each lesson—group discussion, cartoon presentation, radio recording, drama, and so on. In each case the class is presented with the general problem of identifying the issues before the United Nations, of determining the logical positions taken by the East and West blocks, and of evaluating the accomplishments and failures of the United Nations to date. Mr. Barnett's plans are intended to be used in conjunction with the *United Nations News* as the principal source of information.

Six plans are given in full in the article. While the details naturally must vary from year to year in the light of changing events, these basic methods of making United Nations activities real and interesting to a class seem excellent. A preliminary unit on the history and organization of the United Nations is necessary; thereafter one or two periods a month spent on keeping abreast of current matters before the United Nations are probably the maximum the time-crowded social studies class can spare. Such lessons as those used by Mr. Barnett are likely to utilize these periods to best advantage by organizing and centering the class activity around a particular approach. It may be to consider how a newspaper cartoonist or columnist would sum up the achievements of a United Nations session; or how a group of international representatives on a radio forum would do the same thing. In any case, a prepared plan in the hands of the pupils is highly desirable, else the limited time is all too likely to be wasted on aimless talk about what appeared in yesterday's newspaper.

TEACHING COMBINATIONS AND TEACHING LOADS

A matter of concern to all prospective secondary school teachers and those who train or advise them is the question of subject combinations. A very considerable proportion of teachers are expected to be prepared in more than one subject field, and it is important for them to know what combinations are most commonly looked for by administrators. Stephen Romine of the University of Colorado published the results of some research into this problem in *The School Review* for December. His investigations were limited to the state of Colorado but since they included the great majority of all the high school teachers there, they are

probably reasonably valid for the whole country.

Special subject teachers, such as those majoring in art, music and industrial arts, are most likely to avoid having to teach in another field. At least half of all other teachers are required to teach in one or more fields beside their major interests. The most common two-field combinations are English and foreign language, mathematics and science, and English and social studies. Where three or more fields are required they are usually related to these combinations.

An analysis of the teaching loads reported, based on the Douglass formula, showed that teachers in a combination of fields had slightly heavier loads than those teaching in one field. In general, physical education teachers had the lightest loads and commercial teachers the heaviest, though the difference was not great. The teaching load data also showed that the individual load is slightly less in very small schools than in large ones, but heaviest in schools of from eleven to fifteen teachers. Presumably this is because schools of this size present a broader variety of subjects but have only one section in a number of them. Contrary to what might be supposed, there was practically no significant difference between the loads of teachers with varying years of experience.

Mr. Romine's figures may not represent a national picture on these matters of load and teaching combinations, but they are the most recent to appear and his statistics may therefore be useful to prospective teachers.

NOTES

There has come to hand the current edition of the *West Virginia Educational Directory*. It is a handsomely printed volume of 200 pages which gives detailed information about every school in the state, including the names of the teachers and, on the secondary level, the subjects they teach. Presumably the directory has little general use or interest for those outside the state, except possibly for salesmen of school supplies and services. Yet there is something fascinating about a directory like this. One wonders what the schools and their teachers are like, especially the innumerable little rural places like Seldom Seen, Odd, Red Joe, Bear Wallow or Big Jenny. How about Butcher's Fork with its ten pupils, or Buffalo Lick with

eleven, Red Bud with nine or Dandy with seven? These little units are as much a part of the American educational scene as our big city systems but those of us who see only the latter sometimes forget that the little schools still exist. Teaching and learning, often on a high plane, are going on in them too; but it sometimes takes a functional reminder like a state directory to make us aware of them.

The Peabody Journal of Education for November contained an annotated list of books published in 1949 of particular interest or value to teachers. While especially extensive in its coverage of children's books, it also included textbooks, reference works and books on education, psychology and the arts. It is a useful aid to keeping abreast of current publications for professional purposes.

Hedwig Pregler, principal of Colfax School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, had an interesting article in *The Clearing House* for November on the problem of separate classes for the gifted

children. This matter of segregating the abnormal, whether high or low, has long been a disputed question. There are excellent arguments on each side. Miss Pregler presents a good case for a partial segregation plan, whereby the superior children are separated for academic subjects but not for those where superior mental ability is not the primary requisite for success.

The decennial census will be taken this spring and we as teachers will be important cogs in the process. Many teachers will probably serve directly as enumerators; others will have an opportunity to help through classroom education. A census is an even rarer occasion than a presidential election and offers a similar chance to the social studies teacher to capitalize on it for civic education. Not only can the pupils learn much about our institutions through a discussion of the census, but they can in turn help educate their parents about it so that the work of the enumerators will be easier and more accurate.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

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American Government and Politics. By Charles A. Beard. Tenth edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949. Pp. viii, 832. \$5.00.

For forty years, Beard's *American Government and Politics* has been a standard text in college and university courses. It is particularly fitting, therefore, that a new edition of this great work should have been his last completed volume.

In his preface to the first edition, written in April, 1910, Beard wrote of "how difficult a thing it is to describe a complex political organism which is swiftly changing under our very eyes." As the organism became more and more complex, and as the changes came ever more swiftly, Beard revised his text drastically to keep pace with the rapidly moving current of events. A study of his ten editions would in itself reveal many of the major trends in the

theory and practice of American government over a period of four decades. The editions became more factual and analytical, and less historical; and although a student who, like the reviewer, was brought up on an earlier edition may miss the majestic prose and the soaring faith of some of the golden passages which have been exorcised, he will have to confess that the result is a better organized, more complete, and more teachable text.

The present edition, as Beard wrote in the preface, attempts to provide the knowledge which "is now most useful to American citizens in upholding, operating, and developing the American system amid present challenges and perils." It contains three chapters on the essential features of the American system; two on "The Domain of Liberty"; three on "The Popular Basis of Government," including a penetrating analysis of political parties; seventeen

on the national government; eleven on state government; and three on local government. Outstanding among the chapters dealing with the national government are those on "Stresses and Strains in the Balancing of Powers" and on "The War Power." The discussion of "The Fourth Department—the Administration" is adequate, but it would have been more valuable if it could have summarized and discussed some of the findings of the Hoover Commission. The two chapters on foreign affairs are comprehensive and generally objective, a feat which is particularly notable in view of the fact that Beard's volumes on the foreign policies of the Roosevelt administration revealed a hostility which at times bordered on megalomania. These chapters, however, are still the most open to criticism of any in the volume. In the sections on state and local government the chapters on "The Governor" and on "The Judiciary and the Law" are especially good, as are those on urban governments, which present a confusing variety of forms and procedures.

Unquestionably Charles A. Beard did more than any other man to promote and enrich the study and teaching of the American system of government. It is good to know that his seminal text in this field will continue to be available to college students. They could receive no better introduction to the "complex political organism" of American democratic government.

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The White Man's Peace. By No-Yong Park.
Boston: Meador Publishing Company, 1948.
Pp. vi, 252. \$3.00.

For some years now, Manchurian-born No-Yong Park has been engaged by one of our Midwestern teachers' colleges in developing a new college course, "How to Teach World Peace." His fitness for this task is to some extent demonstrated by the books from his pen, such as *An Oriental View of American Civilization*, *Chinaman's Chance*, and *Retreat of the West*. *The White Man's Peace*, Dr. Park's latest book, helps further in the establishment of Dr. Park's reputation as an authority on Oriental problems in particular and world problems in general. In passing it may be said that Dr. Park's trend

of thought was indicated by his Harvard doctoral dissertation, *China and the League of Nations*.

In *The White Man's Peace*, the author points out that white men have been successful in banishing intertribal wars among primitive peoples, but have failed most conspicuously in preventing strife among themselves. In the author's estimation, this is because the more advanced peoples have acted as a kind of police power in quelling disturbances among so-called savages, while there is no analogous power to enforce peace among the so-called civilized.

Wars are waged to end all wars, and thus, at intervals, we have periods of uneasy peace based on terms of the conqueror. This kind of peace, however, is seldom of long duration, as it is the ardent desire of the conquered to restore the status quo. Bigger and better wars eventuate. To enforce peace, associations of nations are formed, but each of these nations is distrustful, not only of the subjugated enemies, but also of one another. Thus fear impels each of the associated nations to pile armament upon armament.

Today the world is largely subject to the will of two nations—the U. S. and U. S. S. R. For a brief season professed friends, these two are once more assuming the guise of enemies. Each accuses the other of a wish to dominate the terrestrial globe. Each believes that checkmating the other is necessary for survival.

Directing his attention to the psychology of war, the author dwells on a fact often overlooked—the fact that fighting men everywhere are inclined to fight with a clear conscience. The members of each tribe and nation constitute a "chosen people," and consider that those who oppose them deserve to be killed without mercy. Such killing, when possible, is deemed glorious. In this connection, pleas go up to the gods in order that they may be persuaded to favor the cause of the right. Both sides, of course, are "right," and not infrequently, enemies shout advice to the same deity.

Even Jehovah was originally conceived of as a god of war, and has often been regarded as such till this day, when the children of God can sing without embarrassment, "Praise the Lord and Pass the Ammunition." (p.14). Ever since the wars of Christendom began,

the self-righteous warriors have sought to draft Jesus of Nazareth. Dr. Park quotes this statement made by Charles Kingsley at the time of the Crimean War:

For the Lord Jesus Christ is not only the Prince of Peace. He is the Prince of War, too. He is the Lord of Hosts, the God of Armies, and whoever fights in a just war against tyrants and oppressors is fighting on Christ's side and Christ is fighting on his side. . . . Be sure of it for the Bible tells you so. (p. 61).

That war is indeed the "science of barbarians" is abundantly proved by the war practices of nations smugly rating themselves high in the cultural scale. "... Our flying bombs and long-range artillery make no more distinction between men and women, combatants and non-combatants, than did the Mongols. We kill them by the millions without mercy, without discrimination. . . ." (p. 39).

As Dr. Park reminds us, war responsibility is often placed upon individuals. Hence, the bogie men—the Napoleons, the Hitlers. Strangely enough, however, as soon as one bogie man is eliminated, another appears. Some super-plotter, it seems, is always disturbing our righteous tranquility. The author, however, places little faith in this interpretation as a cause of war. Regarding Japan he writes:

The modern Japanese built a powerful military empire because they had realized that no people could exist free and independent without acquiring military power in a world of international anarchy. Having built a powerful military machine, they started conquering and dominating their neighbors, because, in a state of chaos, conquest and domination mean security, protection, and survival with honor and glory. (p. 195).

Dr. Park's conclusion with reference to the possibility of world peace is set forth in these words:

All the talk of making treaties and alliances without organizing the world for their enforcement, therefore, would amount to nothing more than a kind of WPA to provide jobs for the unemployed diplomats and the paper and ink manufacturers. (p. 73-74).

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Paths to the Present. By Arthur M. Schlesinger. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949. Pp. xiii, 317. \$3.00.

Paths to the Present is a collection of essays published in various places during the past ten years, all devoted to an examination of the question, "How did we get this way?"

One lays the book aside with the feeling that it provides an excellent antidote for the 100 per centers of our times. Since the cocksure, however, are incapable of analysis, we can only hope that history teachers will impart to their pupils more of the insight of these pages. The result would be a citizenry with a love of country characterized by humility, understanding, and reasonableness.

The most interesting pathway explored by the author is that which relates to the status of the presidency. He takes particular delight in showing how the fear of a third term is a bogey used for political purposes. One is left with a sense of gratitude for the high caliber of most of our Presidents, and a hope that we will do more than merely trust to luck that the most important office in the world will be capably filled in the future.

For teachers, the most important essays are those relating to "War and Peace." Schlesinger shows concisely and convincingly how mistaken Americans have been in their belief that this land was created and nurtured apart from the rest of mankind. Seldom has the parallel development of social and economic life in Europe and America been so clearly traced.

Never has there been such need for all history to be taught as an exploration of the idea of *Paths to the Present*. This book provides an excellent model for all who would so teach.

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Tomorrow Is Beautiful. By Lucy Robins Lang. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949. Pp. 292. \$3.50.

The author, Lucy Robins Lang, has been in close association with the labor movement for approximately forty years. Her first contacts were with Anarchists, but she was not entirely in agreement with what they were doing or with their beliefs. Daring in her ideas and actions,

she was one of the earliest persons to have a trial marriage, which involved a contract drawn up by a lawyer, and later a certificate by a rabbi.

Her interest is in the individual rather than the movement. Wholeheartedly she used her efforts to save individuals accused of crime, whether Anarchists, Socialists, or Communists. Although a life-long friend of Emma Goldman, who influenced her thinking, she nevertheless, did not allow Miss Goldman to dominate her actions. She kept in contact with both Emma Goldman and Alexander Berkman until their final exile in Paris.

Caught in the movement of social change, she was not able to resist the urge to give everything she had to help the unfortunate, the homeless and the oppressed. There is an attempt in this book to explain why she, although prosperous and happy in America, was always ready to sympathize and aid those who were too strongly fanatic and radical in their views. When her first husband, believing that Russia was the workingman's paradise, went to Russia, she not only refused to accompany him, but did not believe that Russia was a worker's Utopia.

Because of her interest in people and movements, she and her husband toured the country in a house car. She became acquainted with the McNamara brothers and the Mooneys of the Preparedness Day bombings in their fight for freedom. In order to help the Mooneys, who became her devoted friends, she formed the Chicago Mooney Defense Committee, which was an object of interest to the labor unions. She met Samuel Gompers, who guided her efforts and actions throughout the rest of his life. She broke with the radical elements and became right hand aid to Gompers, putting all her energies into the growth of the American Federation of Labor. A comprehensive description of the development, problems and the heartaches of those associated with the A.F.L. is given.

Later, a campaign for amnesty for political prisoners was started. In this way, the writer became acquainted with Eugene Debs. A clear picture of Debs in prison, helping the less fortunate, is painted. In order to obtain his freedom she carried the fight to the Department of Justice, the Senate, and finally, the Presi-

dent. The fight won, she went to Atlanta to greet Debs and help him become adjusted to a changed world. He was not able to make the change and his last years were filled with disillusionment and a sense of futility and helplessness with the Socialist party.

Her first trip to Europe in the late 1920's was to study labor movements. In Lithuania, the birthplace of her second husband, Harry Lang, she found many changes, including political and religious changes. Berlin seemed a pleasant contrast, but under the surface there was hate and distrust. An interesting and enlightening description is given of the early days of Tel Aviv. After studying the Arab-Jewish problem she tells why it is largely economic. A trip through the Soviet Union is called a nightmare, and truly so: starvation was evident in the cities, millions of people having starved that year. There were villages of the dead and cities under martial law. In the native village of the author were shocking changes. People were living in hovels and the synagogue used as a rope factory. Here the teaching of Lenin that religion was the people's opium was carried out.

Unpleasant repercussions in the United States followed the publication of her articles on Russia. At this time, in America, there were very strong pro-Russian feelings. Even prominent and usually unbiased newspapers doubted the conditions described. As a result, the health of the writer was so undermined that a trip to Scandinavia was necessary before she could believe that "tomorrow could be beautiful."

Tomorrow Is Beautiful is well worth reading. It covers a wide range of American life for four decades—newspapers, conventions, factories, union meetings, prisons, courtrooms, weddings, sufferings and hope for the future. The book is easy to read and is filled with excitement and interpretation of the American scene.

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A Geography of Man. By Preston E. James and H. V. B. Kline, Jr. Boston, Massachusetts: Ginn and Company, 1949. Pp. xvi, 630. \$4.75.

For almost a generation Preston E. James' text *An Outline of Human Geography* has been used successfully in university teaching. Its eminent usefulness was due firstly to the author's understanding of the contrasting "Landscapes" of the earth and, secondly, to his talent for expression. A gift of literary expression coupled with persistent scholarship is a happy combination. It means the presentation of sound material in such fashion that it can be readily and usefully absorbed by students.

In writing a text an author must recognize the necessity of generalization. The chaotic material of the world of geography must be reduced to a few useful categories. Otherwise it remains infinitely chaotic. As any generalization falsifies and falls short of perfection, so, likewise, does any textbook. Professor James has chosen to present his material in eight vegetation categories (which are, essentially, climatic categories): The Dry Lands, The Tropical Forest Lands, The Mediterranean Scrub Forest Lands, The Mid-Latitude Mixed Forest Lands, The Grasslands, The Boreal Forest Lands, The Polar Lands, and The Mountain Lands. Some readers may take exception to the choice of these categories. At the outset one will realize (as undoubtedly does Dr. James) that in many places the generalization will fail. However, for the purpose of presenting elementary material of geography it is a most useful plan.

In the years that have passed since *An Outline of Human Geography* was first published, the author has continued his research and has somewhat altered his point of view. His interest has turned more to the distribution and density of population as the matter of prime importance for an understanding of the human and cultural regions of the earth.

In his new text, *A Geography of Man*, written with the collaboration of Hibbert V. B. Kline, Jr., the original groups of climatic-vegetation categories have not been discarded. They have proved to be too useful. But there has been an enlargement, an alteration and a new interpretation of them. His increasing preoccupation with the distribution and density of population becomes a part of the original categories.

Part of the text and many of the illustrations

of the earlier book are used in the present volume but the latter should not be considered as merely a new printing of the old. All of the material has been reappraised and new material has been added. For example, there were sections of the earlier book that included technical concepts and locutions that the author now deems unessential. These have been omitted and replaced by description in lay phraseology. It was a wise decision. Nothing has been lost and greater clarity achieved.

Completely new sections have been added at the beginning and the end of the volume. At the beginning there are two brief but useful sections illustrating the emphasis on man as the center of focus. These are: "Stages of Culture Development" and "Industrial Society and Population." In a thoughtful, concluding section our industrial society is considered from the point of view of geographers.

Throughout the volume, geographical knowledge is brought to bear upon problems of the present world areas, for example: "The Population Problem of Italy," "The Palestine Problem." These are considered in the light of the capacity of such areas to support their populations.

As in the earlier text, the appendices contain fundamental material.

The maps and illustrations are numerous and of fine quality.

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Economic Aid to Europe: The Marshall Plan.

Compiled by Robert E. Summers. The Reference Shelf, Vol. 20, No. 2. New York: H. W. Williams Company, 1948. Pp. 271. \$1.50.

It is interesting to observe that all aspects of the Marshall Plan were aired shortly after the proposal was advanced in June, 1947. Congress attacked the issue characteristically in terms of its effect in stopping the advances made by Russia as other countries fell into its orbit. After the five billions requested were appropriated in the spring of 1948, the plan disappeared from the headlines to give way to the Berlin blockade and the subsequent airlift in Germany.

When Mr. Hoffman recently presented the

request for 5.58 billions as the amount to continue the program for 1949-1950, scarcely a voice was raised against the request. Only a small group of Republicans growled at the expenditures and this in terms of political expediency.

This book, edited by Robert E. Summers, has brought together the best available opinions of the day as expressed by the forces that mold our public opinion, i.e., articles in newspapers, magazines, and government releases. In brief introductory paragraphs, the principle issues are well defined. Source materials are then quoted to portray various attitudes on the problem. However there is a tendency in this volume to point up the urgency and importance of the Marshall Plan. This sweeps along with public opinion of the plan as sampled by various polls.

Such materials as this book presents are a valuable source for debate, and for speech and history students. Our American citizenry would be well aware of world issues if this volume became widely read.

Events that have occurred since the appearance of the book greatly extend its importance as a current interpretation of the Marshall Plan.

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Liberalism and the Challenge of Fascism. By J. Salwyn Schapiro. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949. Pp. 421. \$5.00.

This book is an important contribution to an understanding of liberalism as a way of public life. The author shows a sound historical knowledge and evident scholarship in his treatment of liberalism in England and France during the period from 1815-1870 when liberalism came to the fore in these countries. It makes fascinating reading to follow the triumphs and failures of this new movement in the nineteenth century. It is not too much to say that the book presents necessary background knowledge if one is to understand the stresses and strains of our contemporary world.

Between 1815 and 1870, bourgeois class interests, laissez-faire policies and a capitalist economy were synonymous with liberalism. It

is the author's purpose "to emphasize the great and lasting values that bourgeois liberalism gave to democracy and to 'its way of life'." The creation of the liberal state may be considered its outstanding achievement. Previously the state had been the chief bulwark of caste privilege and the suppressor of individual freedom. It was a tremendous innovation in the theory and practice of government when the state became the protector of freedom of the individual and an efficient instrument of social progress.

The author notes that a great transformation in liberalism has taken place since the nineteenth century. "Today, liberalism has become identified with working-class interests, with state intervention, and even with an emerging socialist economy. . . . In the new pattern of life and thought that is now emerging, in which socialized democracy is in the foreground, bourgeois liberalism is clearly seen as the background."

One of the valuable features of the book is the manner in which outstanding thinkers of the period are related to the social forces and movements appearing after the Industrial Revolution. The chapters dealing with the Classical Economists and the Malthusians are excellent, as are those on John Stuart Mill and Alexis de Tocqueville, pioneers of Democratic Liberalism. The chapter on Mill is particularly worth reading today. Mill's emphasis on the vital importance of intellectual freedom in promoting political and social progress should never be forgotten. Our civilization, faced with the challenge of totalitarianism, whether Fascist or Communist, needs to implement today Mill's whole-souled conviction that, given intellectual freedom, every reform can be achieved—in time. The great problem of the future, according to Mill, would be how to unite the greatest individual liberty of action with the common ownership of the means of production and the equal sharing by all in economic benefits. The author thinks that Mill's benign spirit must have been invisibly present at the council tables of the British labor party when it came into power in 1945.

The latter part of the book deals with an explanation of the origin of fascism as the mortal enemy of liberalism. The "heralds of

fascism" are "Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, Statesman," "Pierre Joseph Proudhon, Revolutionist," and "Thomas Carlyle, Prophet." The anti-liberalism of these men is evident. The organization and policies of the Second Empire under Napoleon bore striking resemblances to the fascist dictatorships of our own time. The author admits, however, that it did not include totalitarianism, a central feature of fascism. The writings of Proudhon and Carlyle also reveal the fascist pattern in clear form. Proudhon repeatedly drove home his idea that a social revolution could only be accomplished through the dictatorship of one man. "He it was who first sounded the fascist note of a *revolutionary* repudiation of democracy and of socialism." But the author again admits that there is no hint of the totalitarian corporative state in Proudhon's writings. Carlyle's vision of a new order in society was based on the elite principle, according to which the masterful few ruled the people. He fought a life-long war against democracy and representative government. According to him, great men, "heroes," were the prime movers of all history. He thought democracy never could produce heroes. Not even Nietzsche had more contempt for the common man than did Carlyle. He constantly ridiculed the ideals, methods and practices of liberalism. "Like the fascists, he believed that social problems could be solved only by a ruling elite, who could give to the masses what they really wanted, namely, economic security, not democratic equality." It is not surprising that the Nazis recognized in Carlyle a kindred spirit whose ideas had anticipated their own.

The heritage of liberalism was never more important than today. It solidified the English people when fascism threatened in 1940 as it inspired the Resistance movement in France and led to the creation of the Fourth Republic. A totalitarian dictatorship, whether Fascist or Communist, is always an enemy of liberty. Mankind has been having enough experience with totalitarianism to make Mill's pleas for individual liberty more compelling than ever before.

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The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook.

Edited by Oscar Krisen Buros. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 1949. Pp. 1246. \$12.50.

Today, when educational, industrial, psychological, and psychological tests and books are rolling off the assembly line with such rapidity, there is a definite need for a book like *The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook* to locate and authoritatively evaluate tests as to their construction, validity and reliability. This book is the third in a series of yearbooks prepared to supply information concerning current tests to all those working in the field of applied psychology.

The two important sections of this book—"Tests and Reviews" and "Books and Reviews"—give bibliographical information, lists of references and reviews.

The section "Tests and Reviews" attempts to list all commercially available tests—educational, psychological, and vocational—713 original reviews by 320 reviewers, 66 review excerpts, and 3,368 references on the construction, validity, use, and limitations of specific tests. Seventy per cent of the tests have been reviewed by one or more reviewers. In this section the editor has attempted:

1. To make readily available comprehensive and up-to-date bibliographies of recent tests published in all English-speaking countries.
2. To make readily available hundreds of frankly critical tests reviews, written by persons of outstanding ability representing various viewpoints, which will assist test users to make more discriminating selections of the standard tests which will meet their needs.
3. To make readily available comprehensive and accurate bibliographies of references on the construction, validation, use, and limitations of specific tests.
4. To impel authors and publishers to place fewer and better tests on the market and to provide test users with detailed and accurate information on the construction, validation, uses, and limitations of their tests at the time that they are first placed on the market.
5. To suggest to test users better methods of arriving at their own appraisals of both standard and non-standard tests in light of their particular values and needs.
6. To stimulate cooperating reviewers—and

others to a less extent—to reconsider and think through more carefully their beliefs and values relevant to testing.

7. To inculcate in test users a keener awareness of both the values and dangers which may accompany the use of standard tests.

8. To impress test users with the desirability of suspecting all standard tests—even though prepared by well-known authorities—unaccompanied by detailed data on their construction, validation, use, and limitations.

No reputable psychological library ought to be without this book, and there will be few teachers of psychology who will not be glad to be able to direct their more intelligent students to its pages.

Field Consultant

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HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS

GENERAL

This column is an outgrowth of requests by teachers as to where and how to secure accurate information on current topics, and free and inexpensive materials for use as reference or supplementary work in the classroom.

We have noted that a high proportion of these requests indicate that teachers of the social studies are anxious to secure this material but need help in finding the information.

We are pleased to hear from teachers and trust that this column will prove of benefit in order that they might conserve their time and energy, which can be devoted to more profitable projects elsewhere.

Objective tests to measure progress have proved very beneficial in the evaluation of the work of a pupil and relieve the teacher from the drudgery of preparing examinations. The following tests are suggested for use in the various social studies:

Northwest Educational Bureau, 301 Black Building, Fargo, North Dakota, has prepared tests on the following subjects:

Ancient and Medieval History

Form A. From the Earliest Times to the Fall of Rome.

Form A. From the Fall of Rome to the 17th and 18th Century Monarchies.

Form F. From the Earliest Times to 1648.

Modern History

Form A. Europe from the 17th and 18th Century Monarchies to 1848.

Form A. Europe from 1848 to the Present Time.

Form F. Europe from the Age of Louis XIV to the Present Time.

American History

Form A. The United States to the end of the War between the States.

Form A. The United States from the War between the States to the Present Time.

Form F. Covers the entire course.

PAMPHLETS

Your Opportunity in Management. You and Industry Series.

A splendid pamphlet for supplementary work in social science when studying occupations. Copies free. Publicity Department, 14 West 49th St. New York, 20, N.Y.

The Department of Agriculture, Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, has recently released a well illustrated survey of the geography in Europe and the Near East. The volume has 74 pages, 63 illustrations, 15 of the maps are in color. Price \$1.00. Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D.C.

Recent United States Office of Education Pamphlets:

Fourteen Questions on Elementary Education. Price 10 cents.

Crippled Children in School. Price 15 cents.

Post Graduated Education in High Schools. Price 10 cents.

Intellectual Abilities in the Adolescent Period. Price 15 cents.

Learning About the Soviet Union, prepared by the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship, 114 East 32nd Street, New York 16, N.Y. Price 10 cents.

ARTICLES

"Importance of World Trade," *The American Observer*, March 21, 1949.

Shows how our civilization is dependent on continuous exchange of goods among nations.

"Made-to-Order Reform," *News Week*, Feb-

ruary 14, 1949 Argentina's New Constitution.

"How to Acquire the Art of Leadership," by Henry C. Link, *Reader's Digest*, April, 1949.

A useful article for use in social science classes.

"Dangerous Freedom," by J. Edgar Hoover, *Reader's Digest*, March, 1949.

Criticism of the lenient probation, parole, and pardon practices of many states.

"The New Look in the High School," by Regina Heavy, *Newsletter* April, 1949.

Philadelphia Teachers Association, 1522 Cherry Street, Philadelphia 2, Pennsylvania.

"Should We Turn to Parliamentary Government?" by H. Wallingford and C. L. Thompson, *Forum*, May, 1948.

Discusses the advantages and disadvantages of parliamentary government.

"Great Britain: Employment Policies and Production," by Jean A. Flexner and Ann S. Ritter, *Monthly Labor Review*, March, 1948, Volume 68, Number 3.

A very helpful article when studying the unit on Labor.

"King Darius Told Me So," by Herbert B. Nichols, *The Christian Science Monitor*, Magazine Section, April 2, 1949.

A new insight into the work of this ancient king.

"Let the Citizens Play a Part," by Walter M. Phillips, *National Municipal Review*, Volume XXXVII, Number 10, November, 1948.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Developmental Teaching. By James L. Mursell. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949. Pp. xii, 374. \$3.50.

Developmental Teaching sets forth a pattern for effective teaching that is distinctive and practical.

The Family. Science of Culture Series, Volume V. By Ruth Nanda Anshen. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949. Pp. xxii, 443. \$4.50.

This book was written to emphasize the importance of the family in human life and society.

Modern American Society. By Kingsley Davis, Harry C. Bredemeier and Marion J. Levy Jr. New York: Rinehart and Company, 1949. Pp. xxi, 734. \$4.50.

A book of readings which the editors have compiled to bring social theory and knowledge to bear upon the major problems of our own society by focusing on two central questions profoundly important from both the theoretical and the practical points of view.

The Realities of American-Palestine Relations. By Frank E. Manuel. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1949. Pp. viii, 378. \$5.00.

A timely study of American interest in Palestine, from the appointment of the first Jewish Consular Agent in 1932 through the recent complicated maneuvers of the United Nations Assembly.

The American Soldier: Adjustment During Army Life. By Samuel A. Stouffer, Edward A. Suchman, Leland C. DeVinney, Shirley A. Star and Robin M. Williams Jr. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1949. Volumes I and II. Pp. 613, 680. \$13.50; separate volumes, \$7.00.

A report of the social science research projects undertaken during the past war.

Social Problems in America. By Alfred McClung Lee and Elizabeth Briant Lee. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1949. Pp. xxvi, 741. \$4.00.

A source book on social problems that will be in great demand by students and teachers.

Liberalism and the Challenge of Fascism. By J. Salwyn Schapiro. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949. Pp. xvi, 421. \$5.00.

A challenging book for students interested in the meaning of public affairs.

Intergroup Relations in Teaching Materials. By the American Council on Education. Washington D.C.: 1949. Pp. ix, 231. \$3.00.

Geographic Approaches to Social Education. Clyde F. Kohn. Washington, D.C.: The National Council for Social Studies, 1949. Pp. xxv, 299. Paper-bound \$2.50; Cloth-bound \$3.00.

Nineteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies.

Moral Standards: An Introduction to Ethics. By Charles H. Patterson. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1949. Pp. xx, 514. \$4.00.

An elementary text for courses in ethics on the college level.